THE

AMERICAN REGISTER,

OR

GENERAL REPOSITORY OF

HISTORY, POLITICS, & SCIENCE,

FOR 1806—7.

VOL. I.

Ed. by Charles Brockden Brown.

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PUBLISHED BY

C. & A. CONRAD & CO., PHILADELPHIA; CONRAD, LUCAS, & CO., BALTIMORE; SOMERVELL & CONRAD, PETERSBURG; BONSAL, CONRAD, & CO., NORFOLK; ANDREWS & CUMMINGS, BOSTON; BEERES & HOWE, NEWHAVEN; & CUSHING & APPLETON, SALEM.

PRINTED BY T. & G. PALMER, HIGH-STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

1807.

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Rare Bk. Coll.

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PREFACE.

WE at length present to the public the FIRST volume of THE AMERICAN REGISTER. The Editor dismisses it from his hands with no small degree of diffidence and apprehension. He is sensible that the work will be justly chargeable with many omissions and errors, and is conscious that some of these may be owing to his own incapacity or ignorance. There are some objections, however, to which he may have exposed himself, without any demerit on his own part. In extenuation of these, he trusts to the candour and forbearance of the reader, who will duly reflect upon the difficulties unavoidably attending the commencement of a work entirely new in this country. In properly distributing and proportioning the materials of a work of this nature, the compiler can only be guided by experience, and he must make several trials before his collections completely settle and adjust themselves to the mould designed to receive them.

The Editor had made much larger collections, for every department of the present volume, than he afterwards found it possible to provide room for. The progress of the press, which he was obliged to feed, in some degree, at hazard, left him the power of curtailing, but not of selecting. As it is, in order to admit some of the departments, he has been obliged to extend the volume upwards of fifty pages beyond the number properly belonging to it. In the Chronicle of Memorable Occurrences, and in the Register of Deaths, he was obliged to stop short of the proper period, and reserve a considerable quantity of matter for the ensuing volume. He had carefully translated and digested, with much pains, from genuine originals, a complete series of French bulletins, detailing the war in Prussia, as likewise several official accounts of the same transactions published by the Russian and Prussian governments: documents that are omitted or deplorably mutilated and perverted, through ignorance or haste, in the common papers of the day. He had likewise drawn up a narrative, and prepared the illustrating documents, relative to Miranda's expedition; but all these he has been obliged to omit for want of room, and confine himself to a summary narrative of the affairs of Europe, and with a view of those of America, merely preliminary to a narrative of passing events. A very ample account which he had drawn up of the operations on the frontiers of Louisiana, the latest transaction of

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ERRATA.

(In the Annals.)

Page 12, *lines* 31 *and* 36, *for* Prussia *read* Russia.
38, 9, *for* themselves *read* to its own members.
48, 28, *for* army *read* enemy.

ANNALS

OF

EUROPE AND AMERICA,

FOR 1806—7.

ANNALS OF EUROPE AND AMERICA.

CHAP. I.

POLITICAL transactions are connected together in so long and various a chain, that a relater of contemporary events is frequently obliged to carry his narration somewhat backward, in order to make himself intelligible. He generally finds himself placed in the midst of things, and quickly perceives that he cannot go forward with a firm and easy step, without previously returning to some commencing point. An active imagination is apt to carry us very far backward on these occasions; for, in truth, the chain of successive and dependent causes is endless; and he may be said to be imperfectly acquainted with the last link, who has not attentively scrutinized the very first in the series, however remote it may be.

An American observer, who proposes to give an account of passing events, immediately perceives that the field before him naturally divides itself into foreign and domestic. It may seem, at first sight, that his concern is only with the latter; but a little reflection convinces him, that the destiny of his own country is intimately connected with the situation and transactions of European nations. As trade is the principal employment of the American people; as their trade is chiefly with the nations of Europe, or their colonies; and as the present state of navigation renders the whole globe a theatre of commerce to more than one people, our situation is deeply influenced through the medium of traffic, by the domestic condition and mutual operations of European states. If they are at war among themselves, those wants which, in peaceable times, were supplied by one another, must now find a supply elsewhere, and whatever influences their manufactures and produce on one hand, and their consumption, or the channel which feeds it, on the other, is deeply interesting to a country like our own, which has both the inclination and the power to extend and dilate its commercial dealings almost without limit. Trade and navigation likewise have the wonderful power of annihilating, in its usual and natural effects, even space itself. They bring into contact nations separated by half the diameter of the globe, and supply them

ANNALS OF EUROPE AND AMERICA.

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with occasions and incentives for rivalship, jealousy, and war. Two maritime and trading nations encounter and interfere with each other in every corner of the globe that is accessible by water. With France, Spain, and England, America has not only the relations incident to trading nations, but, by means of their colonies, she is, in some respects, directly or indirectly the territorial neighbour of all of them; and with all of them, therefore, she is liable to those disputes which flow from clashing interests and irritated passions, both on land and water. Hence the interest which we may reasonably take in the wars and negociations of European states among themselves, since their conduct towards ourselves, their inclination and power to benefit or injure us, so greatly depends upon their situation with respect to each other.

The two leading nations in the world, and especially in Europe, are undoubtedly France and Great Britain. For more than half a century, these states have exercised absolute sway upon the movements and councils of the rest of Europe. War and peace have appeared and disappeared, for the most part, at their bidding. Other nations have entered the lists at their instigation, and have carried on war by means of their assistance, either in money or soldiers. If war has not, in all cases, originated in the intrigues and bribes of these two states, they have always thought it necessary to intermeddle with the combatants, and to exasperate, extend, prolong, or terminate the warfare, according to the impulse of their own interest. This interest has generally a relation to each other, and they have fomented or suppressed hostilities beyond their own respective limits, chiefly with a view of annoying each other. The history of France and of England, therefore, is the history of Europe, and, in some measure, of the world. It forms, especially, an important branch of the history of our native country, because those are rich, maritime, and trading states like ourselves, and beset us on all sides, either by their ships or their colonies.

At the present moment, France and Great Britain are at war with each other. France has sufficient influence with Spain to engage her in the same contest. The same may be said of Holland, if Holland may, without impropriety, be considered as a separate state. Turkey has been lately rendered, by one of these accidents, which are impossible to be foreseen or prevented, subject to the influence of France, and is at war with England. An equality of influence maintains Austria and Portugal in a state of neutrality. War at present rages between Russia and Prussia on one side, and France on the other. With regard to Russia, this war may be said to have been instigated by Great Britain, but in relation to Prussia, the present contest affords a striking exception to an observation we have just made, as to the joint influence of France and Great Britain on all the affairs of Europe. Prussia appears to have gone to war with France, not only without the instigation of the English, but at the time when she was at enmity, and almost at open war, with that state. At present, indeed, she is aided in carrying it on, in some degree, by the countenance and money of the latter nation; but it commenced with so much precipitation as to preclude the co-operation of all foreign powers.

ANNALS OF EUROPE.

The present war between France and England may be said to have originated fourteen years ago. As it has been of longer duration, and accompanied with more memorable events, than most former wars, it is likewise singular and unexampled in its origin. Formerly, these nations quarrelled about territory, at first within the limits of France, and afterwards, when the English were entirely expelled from the French limits, about territory in Asia or America. The most common source of contention, in later ages, was the jealousy entertained by England of the aggrandizement of France, even though that aggrandizement were purchased at the expence of other nations. The obvious policy which leads us to secure ourselves from future danger, by preventing an increase of power in one whose situation and temper are best calculated for annoying us, induced the English to go to war to prevent France from acquiring new provinces in Italy, Flanders, or Germany. Hence chiefly arose the war concerning what was termed the Spanish succession, at the beginning of the eighteenth century. The king of Spain left his dominions, by will, to a grandson of the French king, and his subjects were sufficiently disposed to acquiesce in this arrangement, but the intimate alliance and constant co-operation that was likewise to follow the fulfillment of this will between France and Spain, formed a powerful motive for England to forbid it, and to aid the pretentions of Austria to the Spanish throne. The same motives impelled England to go war, in defence of Austria, and afterwards to take part in defence of Prussia, against France. As our neighbours are disabled from injuring us by intestine war and faction, it has always been the policy of states to disseminate and foment political dissentions among their neighbours. The expulsion of the Stuart family in 1688, gave rise to a long series of factions and commotions in England, which France failed not to promote and foster. The quarrel, likewise, between Great Britain and her colonies, in 1776, presented a favourable opportunity to France for reducing the formidable power of her rival, by aiding her revolted subjects.

From the humiliation or subjection of the Calvinists of France, and the extinction of an unruly aristocracy in the minority of Louis XIV, till the opening of the revolution in 1788, the internal state of France exhibited a scene of uninterrupted order and submission, and deprived the neighbouring states of that advantage, which they are sure to make the most of, when a rival nation is afflicted with anarchy and intestine war.

There were no inveterate factions and divisions, which England, or Spain, or Austria might employ to weaken the external efforts of France, either to protect itself, or impede their aggrandizement. That year, however, opened a new scene. The earliest changes in the French government were in the highest degree benign and auspicious. They seemed to have a tendency, not only to advance the internal felicity of the nation, but its power and opulence. In this respect, they would naturally excite the apprehension of their neighbours; but with regard to the English, their vanity was flattered by the notion, that France was only copying the model of their own constitution, and affording a new and practical testimony of its excellence.

They regarded the French in the unoffending light of pupils and admirers, and exulted in innovations and improvements which they considered as flowing from their own precepts and example.

This illusion was speedily at an end. The French hastened precipitately to a point, as much disliked and detested, by the ruling party in Great Britain, as that from which she had set out. Good-will and complacency were converted into hatred and suspicion. The madness of the French enthusiasts, who openly avowed their design, or, at least, their wishes, to introduce their own political system into other states, inspired all their neighbours with implacable hostility, and a general war was the consequence.

The real motives and movers of the war between France and England have been a subject of much controversy. There are supposed, by politicians, to exist among mankind, a set of people who apply to the conduct of nations a certain scale of abstract justice and reason, and condemn or applaud that conduct accordingly. To this* imaginary tribunal, statesmen think it necessary or convenient to appeal when they go to war, and to prove, by a grave detail of facts, that their enemies have been aggressors. Notwithstanding all the appeals made on the present occasion, it is still a matter of doubt whether England commenced hostility, or the first provocation came from France. By some it has been thought, that the ruling faction in France considered a war with England as necessary to the overthrow of their opponents. By others it has been said, that the British ministry believed that the prevalence of what were called French principles could only be checked and diverted by war, and that it was necessary for the preservation of the constitution from change, if not for protecting the territory from conquest.

The leading events of this war are well known. The allies of England, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, the Pope, Naples, Holland, and Russia, have been defeated, repulsed, disarmed, or subdued by France. Several confederacies have been dissolved by the disunion of the parties, or by the victories of the French. The English, on their own element, the sea, and with their proper weapons, those of a naval war, have been crowned with uniform success. Their power in Asia has ascended to a higher pitch than ever. In consequence of their naval superiority, they wrested from the French two of their most valuable conquests, Egypt and Malta. They have destroyed the navy and commerce of France, and baffled every effort of their enemy to invade their territory. In this state of things the two nations agreed, in 1802, to a peace so short and precarious, that it can scarcely be considered as a suspension of war. On that occasion, the English agreed to restore Martinico, Surinam, the Cape of Good Hope, Porto Farraio, and Minorca. They acknowledged the new Batavian republic, and the republic of the Seven Islands, both formed and up-

* It cannot be denied that, in the nature of things, there is such a standard; but it is unquestionable that it has no influence whatever on the conduct of states; that the facts to which it is applied are almost always involved in incurable uncertainty, and that judges, so far void of prejudice and passion as duly to apply this test, are no where to be found.

held by the influence of the French. The French, on their part, consented that the English should retain the island of Trinidad, conquered from Spain, and Ceylon, taken from the Dutch. They agreed to withdraw their troops from Naples and the papal territory, and to procure a territory in Germany for the house of Nassau, equivalent to the estates and authority which it lost by the establishment of the Batavian republic. On all these points their agreement appears to have been easy. The only difficulty which occurred related to the future destiny of Malta.

This island, which, before it was transfered by the emperor Charles V to the order of St. John, was a naked rock, occupied by fishermen, has become, under that celebrated order, an impregnable fortress, and a safe and commodious harbour. In the safety of its port, and the convenience of its position for trade and naval operations in the Mediterranean, it is far superior to Gibralter. It is, artificially, quite as strong, and from situation much more difficult to assail or to conquer. The same motives, therefore, which endear Gibralter to the English, may be expected to operate with still more force in favour of Malta. Both places, however*, are, in effect, merely sources of vast expence, and the latter is of less consequence to England, from any direct benefit flowing from possessing it herself, than from the injury to which her trade would be liable in time of war, if it were in the hands of an enemy. There was therefore no reluctance to relinquish it, provided the new holders were disconnected with France, and could be secured in the possession. This was evidently difficult, if not impossible; and the complex regulations made for this purpose, in the treaty of Amiens, were doubtless nugatory, as long as the order was composed of catholics, and consequently drawn from countries under the influence of France. The treaty meanwhile was ratified, because the surrender of Malta depended on future contingencies.

It is well known that the refusal of the English to surrender Malta, in consequence of new encroachments made by France on the independence of her neighbours, occasioned a renewal of the war. The same causes, likewise, excited a new war between France and Austria, which ended, in a single campaign, by the conquest of the greater part of the German territories of the latter. They were redeemed by a treaty, in which the pre-eminence of France in Holland, Switzerland, and Italy was established, and a transfer made to her of these territories, which anciently belonged to the republic of Venice.

* The works at Malta require a garrison of seven thousand effective men, but that naval superiority which can only *supply* Gibralter when besieged, can altogether prevent the siege of Malta. Two-thirds of the annual consumption in grain are imported from Sicily. It is itself no source of commerce, and the British Levant trade was so low, that it was not worth while to retain Malta for its security.

CHAP. II.

THE cessation of hostilities in every other quarter, allowed the French, in the early part of the year 1806, once more to direct all their efforts against Great Britain. As that island was wholly inaccessible except by water, as its colonies and commerce were secured from all attacks by its naval superiority, there remained only a project of direct invasion, in which there was any possibility of success. This project was recommended by the imagined superiority of the French troops in numbers and discipline to those of England, a superiority arising from the military habits and experience of the French nation, and the long internal tranquility and pacific institutions of the English, and by the proximity of their opposite shores, in consequence of which, it was thought possible to effect the disembarkation of a great army in England, without the necessity of a regular battle at sea. France and England are separated by a channel, which widens somewhat gradually, from an interval of twenty-two miles, to one of four times that breadth. At the narrowest part, therefore, the passage can be effected in a few hours, and at the widest, it would be possible to effect it in a single day. That station on the French coast, which unites the advantages of being nearest to England, and of affording security to the shipping necessary to invasion, would, of course, be fixed upon by the French as the centre and commencing point of all their preparations. Boulogne, about forty miles south-east of the nearest part of the English shore, is so far suitable to this purpose, that its shallow waters prevent the access of very large ships, and an extensive line of fortifications can keep a hostile fleet at a harmless distance. To Boulogne, therefore, the war between France and England may be said to have been, for some years, almost entirely confined: one side employing all its ingenuity and power in mustering armies and preparing shipping at this point, and protecting them from injury; while the other had been equally vigilant and active in watching and disturbing the progress of these preparations. One party was continually in search of new expedients for facilitating, and the other for preventing, the passage of the channel. Hitherto, the French had not completed their preparations, or had not found the opportune moment for beginning their voyage; while the English, with all their industry, had not been able to make any sensible impression on the armament in its actual state. The possibility of effecting this invasion, if not in open opposition to a hostile fleet, yet in consequence of a certain state of wind and weather, by which one would be enabled to move forward, and the other be hindered from advancing, impressed the English government with a great and salutary terror. They saw the necessity of providing a great military force to oppose the invading army on its landing, and it has long been anxiously engaged in deliberating on the best mode of forming and distributing this military force.

There would, at first sight, appear to be little difficulty on this head. The same institutions which have rendered the French so formidable, would have the same influence on another nation. The difference, as to mere number, between the population of France and England, is wholly immaterial, in cases where the latter exerts itself in defensive operations. In constitutional strength and courage, the two nations cannot be supposed to differ. In those moral elements which constitute a soldier, attachment to the cause in which he is engaged, and obedience to discipline, it would be equally absurd to suppose any disparity between them. The modes adopted by the French for selecting, arming, and disciplining a certain class or proportion of the people, and preparing them for service when wanted, are equally practicable in both cases. There are indeed diversities in the situation of the two nations favourable to the French. In the first place, the invaders would necessarily be superior to their opponents, both soldiers and commanders, in those qualities which are produced by actual experience in war. This disadvantage on the English side, whatever be its magnitude, cannot be removed, and must therefore be endured. So far as it can be outweighed by superior numbers, it would be easy to obviate it, because in England the persons qualified for military service, compared with the greatest number which the French could bring to the attack, would be as ten or fifteen to one. In the second place, the French, with a veteran army, would commence the attack suddenly, and at one point. The British metropolis is within forty miles, or one day's rapid march, of the nearest shore, and of that shore which is most commodious for landing an army from France. It would be difficult, therefore, if not impossible, to collect a sufficient force, on so short a warning, to make head against them. This advantage, if incurable, must likewise be submitted to in patience, and without discussion. If it can be lessened or removed by multiplying fortresses on this side, or by establishing as large encampments of troops, near the south coast of England, as the French shall form on theirs, the remedy is obvious. Notwithstanding this state of things, however, the proper mode of resisting an invasion has given rise to endless consultations and debates in England. Several modes have been successively adopted and relinquished. Different opinions are maintained with regard to the usefulness, first, of increasing the number of inland fortresses and strong holds; next, of relying on the aid of large bodies of volunteers; thirdly, of different modes of enrolling, equipping, and disciplining the inhabitants who are of a military age and constitution; and, fourthly, of augmenting, decreasing, or distributing the regular army. As no system can be carried into effect without the sanction of a legislature, consisting of two numerous bodies, whose deliberations are public, and as the press is open to the political lucubrations of private persons, it is surprising and amusing to survey the innumerable schemes and arguments which this interesting topic has produced. In this place, we can only make this general allusion to them, and observe, that, in the summer of 1806, a military force, including regular and militia troops, was maintained, by Great Britain and Ireland, at the enormous expence, in the whole, of more

than twenty millions sterling, or nearly ninety millions of dollars, a year. This force was indeed distributed throughout the world, in Africa, in Asia, in the Mediterranean sea, and in America, but, of course, the greatest part was stationed at home, and in such a manner as to afford prompt assistance against any domestic enemy. Though the best mode of defence against a French invasion was still the subject of ardent controversy within and without the senate, it must not be supposed that that defence was wholly neglected: on the contrary, an extensive scheme of conduct for encountering every exigence that might ensue was adopted, fortifications were raised along the coast, and troops distributed in places where opposition to a foreign army might be most effectually made.

In discussing the best mode of defending their country, the British nation are compelled to pay attention to two circumstances: the expence and the demands of agricultural and manufacturing labour. The spirit and habits of the people are such, that a million of well disciplined soldiers might be encamped, for an indefinite time, on the coasts of Kent and Sussex; but if the present force requires twenty millions sterling a year to support it, a larger, and of course a more expensive, preparation would be impossible. As the increase of the army would augment the expence, it would likewise, in the same proportion, lessen the income of the public, by depriving the various arts of their customary workmen. The great point in view, therefore, is to qualify and oblige the young men of the nation to take up arms, and march only when their services are wanted, but previously to allow them to pursue their several occupations without interruption.

As the domestic security of England is promoted by raising enemies, and thus affording employment to France in other quarters, the British government has always been industrious in sowing dissention between France and her neighbours. To impute to her influence all the wars that have taken place in middle and western Europe of late years, would, however, be extremely absurd. The maxims of the French revolutionists, with their conduct in destroying the royal family and abjuring religion and monarchy, were amply sufficient to excite a spirit of hostility in all surrounding nations. Their successes in the wars they have carried on have merely brought about a compulsory peace, and left, in the states they have conquered, a sense of injury and injustice, which only waits an opportunity of showing itself. In addition to all those motives of jealousy and ambition, which have actuated the French and Austrian governments against each other for some centuries, the former has, during the last thirteen or fourteen years, heaped upon the latter every imaginable species of insult and injury, and nothing but an utter despair of success, on the side of Austria, can ever induce that government to submit to its present humiliating destiny. The pecuniary aid of England, though never a principal, was no doubt an auxiliary motive for Austria to quarrel with France, and this kind of assistance has always been liberally granted by the British to the enemies of their great and sole rival. The war which terminated with the battle of Austerlitz reduced the Austrian power so low, that even Britain herself was forced to acknowledge that a new

war between France and Austria was rather to be deprecated than desired. The diversion in her favour, produced by such a war, could only be expected to be momentary, while the issue of the contest would inevitably raise the power of France to a still more formidable height. The same considerations had still more weight in the British councils, with regard to Portugal. They were satisfied if Portugal were unmolested, and allowed to remain at peace. She was destined to be the helpless prey of the first invader, and, though Britain would be obliged to exert herself in defence of Portugal, when attacked, her utmost exertions, though expensive and injurious to herself, would be wholly ineffectual with regard to their proper end. Naples was nearly in the same situation, and the states anciently so formidable or respectable, Sardinia, Holland, Switzerland, Venice, Rome, Tuscany, Genoa, and Spain, were either wholly extinguished, or joined in indissoluble bonds of alliance with the enemy.

The only powers of Europe that retained their independence, and whose alliance or co-operation might be purchased without imminent danger to themselves, were Turkey, Russia, and Prussia. Turkey was little valued as a friend, or dreaded as an enemy. She was almost as impotent and helpless as Portugal or Naples, and even her commerce was scarcely of as much value as that of those countries. Russia, on the contrary, has been of late years treated with uncommon deference and respect by all the states of Europe. Her alliance has been courted with the utmost solicitude by all parties, and her interference dreaded or desired as capable of deciding every controversy. How she acquired this reverence is not easily discovered, since her military power has hitherto been exerted, with any degree of success, only against the Turks, who, in the arts of war, have relapsed into barbarism, and against the Poles, whose political disunion and inferior numbers sufficiently account for the success of their enemies. The eyes of mankind have been dazzled by the great local extent and rapid advances in culture and population of the Russian empire; by the absolute authority of the prince; by the formidable amount of its troops, as they appear in official statements and deplomatic reports; and by its assiduous imitation of German tactics. It has not been sufficiently considered that the empire of the Russians is, for the most part, merely nominal, and comprehends little more than tribes whose poverty and barbarism render their obedience equally useless and precarious, or deserts rendered uninhabitable by sterility or cold; that their advances are only remarkable when compared with their humble and recent beginnings; and that if their gross population were equal to that of France or Austria, yet their national strength must be less when exerted in attacking others, exactly in proportion as their numbers are scattered over a wider surface. The genius of the Russian government and manners is undoubtedly more akin, from whatever cause it arises, to those of western Europe, than that of the Turkish or mahometan system. The Turks occupy a country possessed of a better climate and soil, and greater proportional population, than Russia. Their local relations with the west of Europe is more close and intimate, yet the institutions, and arts, and political maxims of France

and Germany, have made much less progress among the Turks than among the Russians. Religious peculiarities will not satisfactorily explain this difference, and the problem must remain unsolved, unless we allow some influence to the personal character of Peter I, aided by those connections of blood or marriage with the German princes, which distinguished his successors.

It is not easy, at first sight, to perceive what occasions for enmity or rivalship could arise between Russia on one side, and France and England on the other. The former has no colonies or provinces beyond the main, nor any foreign trade of importance. This source of contention, therefore, does not exist. The wide interval which separates them renders the wars and conquests of Russia on her neighbours of no such immediate consequence to France or England as to justify their interference. In like manner, Russia has no obvious concern in the contentions which might take place on the Po or the Rhine, or in the English channel. Still, however, France and England were prone to interfere, either from a meddling and domineering spirit, or from the apprehension of remote consequences in Russian affairs, and Russia has been led by personal vanity, by resentment for airy insults, or by large subsidies, to take part in wars, the proper theatre of which lay five hundred or a thousand miles beyond her own border.* Thus France at one time, and England at another, has, directly or indirectly, checked the progress of the Russians in Turkey. If they did not interfere in the partition of Poland, it was probably from the pressure of more immediate interests, or from the impossibility of intermeddling with due weight against the threefold combination of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. For more than half a century, the Turkish provinces have been the great object of Russian ambition. France has studiously raised obstacles in the way of her wishes at one time, because the consent of Austria was to be previously obtained to this conquest, and Prussia could only obtain this consent, by allowing Austria to participate in the spoil. Hence, as France and Austria were, in some sense, contiguous and consequently rival states, it was incumbent on France to preserve Turkey, because Austria would be the stronger for her destruction. The same motive, arising from a similar relation both to Austria and Prussia, actuated Prussia to unite with France, for the protection of Turkey. At a subsequent period, when Russia, Austria, and France coallesced to divide the Turkish empire between them, the English, whose interest lay in preventing any accession to the French power, interfered for the preservation of Turkey, and thereby drew down upon itself the enmity of the Russian sovereign.

When the French revolution broke out, the abhorence and alarm naturally excited in all crowned heads, by the destruction of monarchy

* A curious example of the influence of wealth over poverty, and of the power of the British nation over the affairs of the continent, occurs in a treaty which the English made with the empress Elizabeth, in which the former hires from the latter fifty thousand men, to march into Germany for the safety of Hanover.

and the royal family in France, strongly infected the head of the Russian, and even of the Turkish empire. This, added to the attack of the French on Egypt, cemented a strange and momentary alliance between Turkey and Russia, and strengthened the amity between Turkey and Great Britain. When the French were dispossessed of Egypt, and disabled by the English from assailing any part of the Turkish territories, they had only to renew their amicable intercourse with Turkey, and regain an influence in its councils, by awakening its ancient animosity to Russia, and to instil suspicions of England on account of the alliance between Russia and that power. The rapid triumphs of the French in Germany and Italy naturally augmented the interest which the English had in the friendship of Russia, but this friendship was to be bought only by withdrawing its protection from Turkey in case of a future war between the Turks and Russians, and this concession was the more readily made, because the aggrandizement of France had put a weight in one scale, which could only be outweighed by some enormous addition to the other.

Such is partly the clue to that complicated labyrinth displayed by the wars and negociations of the states of Europe, for the last twenty years. Such were the circumstances that led to the alliance between England and Russia, which subsisted in the year 1806, and to that state of hostility subsisting, at the same period, between Russia and France. The proper theatre of these hostilities were, indeed, shut up from the parties, by the peace that reigned in Germany and Turkey. The Russians could appear upon the Danube, the Elbe, and the Rhine only as the ally of Austria or Prussia; but these powers were at peace with France. France could not, and had no interest to induce her to send an army into Poland, and the peace of Turkey allowed her not to encounter Russia on that stage as a confederate of the sultan. A petty contention was, however, kept up in a remote corner of Dalmatia.

In pursuance of the last treaty between Austria and France, the former ceded to the latter all those provinces which anciently belonged to Venice, and which, at the conclusion of a former war, were assigned to Austria, as the price of the surrender of the Netherlands to France. The Venitian dominions extended along the eastern shore of the Adriatic, about three hundred miles from the head of that sea. At the point where the Venitian territory ended, a small district began, belonging to the small republic of Raguza. Raguza enjoyed in some sort a political independence of all its neighbours. A moderate tribute or present was payable, however, to the Turkish sultan, every three years, which secured them not only from all internal interference by that power, but its protection from all other powers, and considerable commercial privileges in the ports of the Turkish empire. This happy little state enjoyed a long period of tranquility, till the Russians and the French made its territory the scene of their bloody contentions.

The Raguzan territory terminates, on the south, at a river or inlet of the sea, called the Cattaro, the mouths of which were capable of being made strong military stations, and were included in the latest

cession to the French. The seven Grecian islands formerly belonging to Venice, and erected by the French into a nominal republic, were, in the year 1806, in possession of the Russians. Corfu, one of these islands, is adjacent to the Dalmatian coast, about two hundred miles below the Cattaro, whose mouths, together with the neighbouring districts, were therefore occupied by their forces. The wild and independent tribes in the neighbouring hills, united with the Russians in carrying on a desultory and destructive war against the French, and no efforts on the part of the latter had hitherto proved entirely successful. In every other quarter, the two nations were prevented, by long intermediate tracts of land or sea, from coming to blows.

Prussia was the third state in Europe, whose internal strength and political independence made its alliance desirable, or its enmity formidable, to Great Britain, but Prussia had been for some years united in the closest apparent amity with France. The deep rooted jealousy, and irreconcileable interests of Prussia and Austria had yielded, for a moment, in the early days of the French revolution, to the common terror of republican France. This alliance was speedily dissolved, and the obvious policy of purchasing the connivance and forbearance of Prussia, by enriching it with the spoils of England and Austria, has been practised by the French with the greatest success. The general principle, by which all states are governed, of aggrandizing themselves, actuated Prussia in maintaining a strict neutrality in the wars of France against England, Austria, and Russia, and this conduct was far more gainful than war. The French were deeply interested in keeping Prussia quiet, and rewarded her, at the close of every war, with valuable territories chiefly ravished from the petty princes of Germany. Had it been possible to foresee the total discomfiture of Austria, in the war of 1805, the Prussians would probably have perceived, that war with France, at that critical juncture, was dictated by the wisest policy. That conjuncture of affairs, however, was so brief, and the event so little within the reach of human foresight, that the inactivity of Prussia, impartially considered, detracts nothing from her reputation for political wisdom. Her neutrality was amply recompenced by the annexation of Hanover to her empire, a gift in the highest degree judicious, not only on account of its intrinsic value to the receiver, but because, being originally the property of the king of England, and ravished from him by force of arms, the breach would thereby be widened between the old and the new possessor. This consequence accordingly ensued, and several indications appeared, about this time, that menaced an actual war between England and Prussia.

CHAP. III.

IN this state of things, when England was obliged to resign all hope of effectual co-operation from the continental powers; when all that was vulnerable or accessible in the empire of France, had been previously acquired; and when France had exhausted all the means in her power of distressing her rival, the continuance of war between them ceased to be subservient to the glory, revenge, or benefit of either party. War prevented France from restoring her commerce and industry, and subjected England to an enormous and destructive expence. The advantages of peace, therefore, became every day more evident to both parties; and a change in the English ministry, occasioned by the death of Mr. Pitt, seemed to bring that desirable event within reach.

The war against France commenced under the auspices, and in persuance of the councils, of the deceased minister. Mr. Fox, his great political rival, had made incessant and uniform parliamentary opposition to this war, and condemned not only the grounds and pretexts on which it had commenced, but almost every step in its progress. He was, at all times, the vehement advocate of peace, and the period had at last arrived, when the death of Mr. Pitt, and the equilibrium between France and England, gave admission to Fox and his pacific principles into the councils of the British government.

A private letter from Mr. Fox to Talleyrand, the French minister for foreign affairs, relative to a project suggested to the former for assassinating the French emperor, opened the way for a correspondence between them, which commenced in February, 1806. In these letters a mutual desire for peace is expressed, and each one recognizes the claim of the other to terms of absolute equality. As the friendship of Russia was highly valued by the English, great pains were taken by Mr. Fox to convince the French, that though each might treat separately, nothing could be finally done without the full concurrence of Russia. The French were not blind to the obvious policy of disuniting these allies, and that dexterity and artifice, in which the French excel all other nations, were exerted for the purpose, but entirely without success, with regard to England. About the middle of June, lord Yarmouth, at that time a prisoner in France, became the medium of intercourse between the two ministers, and in August, the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth held formal conferences with Champagny and Clarke, at Paris, as plenipotentiaries, on this important subject. In the early part of this negociation, some incautious expressions of Talleyrand, admitted as equitable the claims of the British, first, to retain all their conquests, and, secondly, to have Hanover restored to them. Sicily, being at this time in possession of the British, was included in the required cession, but the importance of this island to

France occasioned an extreme and equal solicitude in both parties to retain it. Some districts on the eastern coasts of the Adriatic, at one time, and the Balearic islands at another, were offered as a recompence for Sicily, but the superior value of the latter island, not only in itself, but as in some degree necessary to the preservation of Malta, the greater part of whose subsistence is derived from Sicily, with the facility of defending it by a naval power, were insuperable obstacles to any such exchange. In exchange for these advantages, the English merely offered to acknowledge the actual governments of France, Holland, and Italy, and leave the French in possession of all their acquisitions; provided, necessarily, that Russia fully concurred in this agreement. It is amusing to see, in the various particulars of this conference, the vigilance and ingenuity exerted by both parties, to obtain some advantage over the other. The English are diligent in maintaining, as the only ground of a treaty, the retention of all their own conquests, and the restitution of Hanover, and in reminding the French agents, that these claims had been originally admitted by their minister, while the French, on the other hand, by silence or evasion, escape from the consequences of their first concession, and, by fluctuating between concession and refusal, prolonged the conferences to the sixth day of October, when, eight months after its commencement, the negociation terminated in the absolute refusal of the French, to allow their adversaries to retain Sicily, or to restore Hanover.

The former of these points appears to have been the great difficulty, on both sides; yet its value to the English was merely indirect, since they aimed not to hold it themselves, but merely to secure it to its own prince. The transfer to France would considerably augment the power of their enemy, though its independence would be of little direct benefit to themselves. It is not easy to imagine how the British government purposed to secure the independence of Sicily against the future attempts of France. It could only be done by maintaining at Malta a considerable naval force, sufficient to frustrate any sudden attempts at invasion, or by garrisoning the island with an English army, supported at their own expence, or at that of the Sicilians; but either of these arrangements would be productive of great inconvenience.

Though the French agents could not succeed in persuading the English minister to treat with them independently of Russia, they were less unfortunate in their efforts to detach Russia from England. P. D'Oubril, an agent dispatched to Paris for making arrangements respecting the exchange and maintenance of Russian prisoners, was persuaded to sign a treaty on the 20th July, 1806, in which the emperor of Russia consented to abstain from any further interference in the affairs of western Europe. He was made to promise to give up to France the mouths of the Cattaro, and all other stations in Dalmatia possessed by his troops, while Napoleon promised on his part that, within three months after giving the order for the surrender of Cattaro, all the French troops should leave Germany. As the terms of this treaty were directly opposite to the avowed intentions of the Rus-

sian government, and the alliance between Russia and England, the French could not flatter themselves that it would be ratified at Petersburg; but it was obtained from the Russian agent by a series of laborious artifices, merely to impress the English with an apprehension of being deserted by Russia, and thus either to induce them to make a separate treaty, or to relax in their demands.

If we take an impartial view of this negociation, we shall be obliged to acknowledge that the conduct of the English throughout was candid and upright, while that of the French was full of subterfuge and sophistry, equally disingenuous and fruitless. They were evidently much deceived in their notions of the views and temper of the new British ministry. Mr. Fox had expended so much eloquence in condemning the principles and conduct of the war, that France naturally concluded that he would hasten to terminate hostilities by any sacrifice, when power should come into his hands. On the contrary, the demands of the English were such as certainly implied, that the meed of success, in the long protracted warfare, had been allotted to them. They not only insisted on retaining all they had conquered, but required the restitution of a province, which it was impossible to wrest from France by force of arms, and which France had given already to an ally, who would never have peaceably surrendered it. With regard to Hanover, however, there is reason to think, that England would not have made its restitution an indispensible condition of peace. In the hands of Prussia it could do the English no harm. If restored, it would not become the property of the nation, but merely an expensive and burthensome appendage, which, unprofitable as it was, could not be defended in a new war. The pleas of the British, that Hanover ought to be restored, because it was unjustly attacked, were plainly nugatory and absurd. The distinction between England and Hanover, between the nation and the king, was sufficiently intelligible to an English lawyer, but was a ridiculous refinement in the eyes of foreigners. Its folly was indeed evinced by the stress laid, by the English government, on its restitution.

If the English acted in this negociation as conquerors, and as if the peace that was to follow was granted as a favour to France, the French, on the other hand, in demanding certain islands in America, taken from the Dutch, and the cession of Sicily, without any reasonable compensation, assumed in like manner the tone of conquerors. The events of the war, immediately relative to England, certainly did not justify this haughtiness in France, but neither did the issue of the contest between France and the allies of Britain justify a lofty tone in England. Both nations had advanced greatly in power since the commencement of the war, but undoubtedly France had made the greater progress; yet, in the power of annoying England, the naval successes of that state had certainly reduced her rival to a lower point than she occupied before the revolution. No war waged by Great Britain for many centuries has been crowned by more splendid and uniform success than the present. As an insular and commercial state, all her efforts for her own protection, and for the extension of her proper em-

pire, have been victorious in the amplest manner. Her colonies and distant provinces were safer from molestation than ever, and, so far as the facilities of invasion depend upon naval power, her security was greater than it had ever been before. The numbers, unanimity, and zeal of the people, the vigour of the government, and its military preparation, was certainly much greater than at any period of the eighteenth century; and if France could muster greater armies than formerly, this advantage, however real, was probably outweighed by the depression of her naval power, if not by those favourable circumstances, already mentioned, in the internal state of Great Britain.

There was one point of view, however, in which the difference was apparently very disadvantageous to Great Britain. The national revenue of France was the fruit of great and oppressive taxation, but it was sufficient to defray the annual expences, and does not appear to have encroached upon the capital fund, or to have impaired the sources of future revenue. The stock on which the public made its levies was not likely to grow less from year to year, nor taxation to grow more oppressive, or less certain and productive. The situation of England was directly opposite: of the public revenue, the proportion set aside for other purposes than that of supporting fleets and armies was annually augmented, and hence, though the defence of the nation should cost no more at one time than another, yet the burthen of taxation continually increased, and a general apprehension prevailed that the nation was not far from that point, when any further addition to the taxes would be impossible. As this state of things will oblige the government to suspend the payment of the interest of the public debt, and thus deprive an incredible number of persons of their usual means of subsistence, such an event is commonly, though erroneously, regarded as equivalent to utter ruin*. A peace, by lessening the current expences of the state, diminishes taxation; or, at least, prevents its annual increase. Hence it is immediately conducive to the well-being of the people, while, at the same time, it puts the dreaded catastrophe further off. Such, however, is the national spirit of the English, that the pressure of immediate, or the apprehension of future evils, however they may be occasionally magnified by the rhetorick of inexperience or of faction, has never lessened their regard for what is called national honour, or tempted them to make any sacrifice, which implied military superiority in an enemy. Either that taxation, so much

* It is somewhat adventurous to speculate upon the consequences of a national bankruptcy in England. An event, whose influence must necessarily be so extensive and complicated, can hardly be subjected to calculation; yet if all extravagance and rhetorical exaggeration be laid aside, every one must allow, that, whatever proportion of the nation suffers by it, and whatever be the extent of this suffering, the injury must, of necessity, be temporary, while the benefit is vast and permanent. In its immediate effects, it cannot render the state less formidable to other states, and, in its ultimate effects, it must, in a wonderful degree, augment its power. Public bankruptcy is not without numerous examples. France itself owes much of its actual force to this very circumstance.

talked of, is more a nominal than real burthen, either the fund that supplies it increases in the same proportion with itself, or there is something in the modes of expenditure which counteracts the primary evil; for the taxes of late years are paid with as much facility, and with as little reluctance, as in former times, and the government actually succeeds in raising all that its occasions demand, and much more than the theoretical observers of former times conceived to be possible.

A general view of the trade and revenue of the British empire leads to astonishing conclusions. The annual charge, which includes the expence of management, on account of the British public debt, in the year 1806, amounted to more than twenty-seven millions and three quarters sterling. This charge had increased, during the foregoing four years, about four millions and a quarter. The sum necessary for the support of civil government, and for the general defence, amounted to nearly fifty-five millions and a half. Of this sum, two millions and a quarter were absorbed by the mere expences of collecting and managing the whole. The annual charge on the national debt added to this sum, appropriated to the other current expences, raise the whole to eighty-three millions and a quarter pounds sterling. Of this gross amount, very near thirty-two millions was paid by wealthy individuals, in the form of loans, bearing interest. Upwards of five millions was levied in Ireland, and the remainder, or about forty-three millions and three quarters, in Great Britain, in the form of taxes. The annual parochial assessment, in Great Britain only, for maintenance of the poor, amounted to upwards of five millions. By this detail it appears, that the national debt did not aggravate the actual burthen of taxation, since the loans of this year not only defrayed the interest and charges accruing on the previous debt, and even accruing on themselves, but contributed near five millions towards defraying the current expences of civil government, and the general defence. It is this facility of borrowing to so enormous an amount that constitutes the most striking feature in the political economy of this nation. The public debt ceases to be an actual burthen, as long as the whole interest and charges are defrayed by new voluntary loans. However enormous it may be, it cannot be considered as shackling or encumbering the operations of the state, till that period when the annual charge created by it is defrayed, in some proportion, by taxation. Its constant augmentation affords the melancholy certainty, that such a period must arrive; but this is no present evil*.

The average annual value† of imports into Great Britain, during the last nine years, amounted to a sum between twenty-nine and thirty-one millions. The last six years of this period had produced a larger average than the three preceeding; but the imports of 1805 were less in value, by two millions, than those of 1802. The *real* value of

* On the stock created in 1806, the interest and all charges amounted to a proportion of nearly three and one-sixth per cent.

† In this statement, the *official* value is meant, which is always much below the *real* value. It serves at least as a medium of comparison. The official to the real value is commonly estimated in the proportion of about five to eight.

British manufactures, exported in 1805, was about forty-one millions. In the year 1802, they were eight millions more in real value*.

* The following particulars will likewise usefully illustrate the state of the British empire, during four years of the nineteenth century. The number of British ships, built and registered in the ports of the British empire, in the

Year ending			
	Jan. 5, 1803 was	1281	their tonage 137,508
	Jan. 5, 1804	1402	135,349
	Jan. 5, 1805	991	25,979
	Jan. 5, 1806	966	89,975

Year ending				
Jan. 5, 1803	Br. ships entered G. B.	13,622	ton. 1,793,333	men employed 108,669
	For. ships	3,733	480,241	27,737
	Br. ships cleared	13,012	1,625,966	102,427
	For. ships	3,352	461,823	26,740
Jan. 5, 1806	Br. ships entered	11,409	1,494,075	87,148
	For. ships	4,515	691,703	34,719
	Br. ships cleared	11,603	1,494,968	94,388
	For. ships	3,930	605,641	30,910

CHAP. IV.

WE have already mentioned, that the war between France and England was almost entirely confined to the operations at Boulogne, operations which consisted, on one side, chiefly in watching an opportunity to leave that harbour, and, on the other, to prevent the enemy from leaving it. Nothing but the superiority of a great naval force prevented the French from landing in Great Britain; but to maintain this superiority, and imprison the French in their own harbours, appears to be the sole purpose of the English, in relation to the French territory. For more than two centuries, all projects of regular and permanent conquests in France have been relinquished by the English. Expeditions have been occasionally made, and troops been landed, on the French coast, but merely to assist a party at a period of civil war, as the hugonots in former times, and the royalists of late years, or to destroy shipping and maritime fortresses. This system of conduct has arisen from a rooted persuasion, that no permanent impression could be made against the military and internal force of France, acting upon its own ground. This opinion cannot be better grounded in relation to France than to Great Britain; and France seems to have seriously meditated no design of invading England, since the claims of the Stuart family have become extinct, or obsolete, and all hope of a cooperating insurrection was by this means removed, till the ascendency of Buonaparte was established in France. The turbulent state of Ireland has indeed afforded, since the opening of the French revolution, a strong temptation to the enemies of England, and, for some time, all the French projects of invasion were confined to that island. Buonaparte, more fortunate and daring than any of his predecessors, conceived the hope of effecting a total conquest of England itself, and undoubtedly awaits with impatience an opportunity for making the attempt. The English, instead of assailing any part of the French territory, have hitherto contented themselves with checking and opposing the French in their distant expeditions, where a powerful navy was at hand to recruit her own forces, and cut off all supplies from the enemy, and where her efforts were in some degree seconded by the government and natives of the country which formed the scene of warfare. In this way, the utmost diligence was used to intercept the French armament destined against Malta and Egypt. When these places were subdued by the French, they were attacked by the British; but, when the French were dispossessed of these, there was no part of their conquests accessible but Sicily and Naples.

The kingdom of Naples has for ages been the sport and prey of foreign conquerors. The French, Spaniards, and Austrians, have alternately been masters of this opulent and fertile country, and, in an abstract view, the government of all these nations has been mere usurpation. Some of them, however, have remained masters so long, that their claim have acquired the sanction of custom and prescription, the

only basis on which political authority can safely rest. When the French first invaded Italy, their political opinions had previously smoothed their path, and Rome and Naples were metamorphosed into republics. When the Austrians were finally expelled from Italy by Buonaparte, and the republican system in France entirely exploded, the kingdom of Naples was revived, and bestowed upon a brother of the French emperor, as a feudal or dependent principality. The French, however, had never perfected their conquest of the Italian provinces of this kingdom. The southern districts, called the two Calabrias, are very mountainous. They are inhabited by an ignorant, hardy, turbulent, and ferocious race of men, whom their attachment to their former sovereigns, or the military violence and licence of the French, have inspired with a deadly aversion to their new masters. The nature of their country, abounding in sharp hills and narrow vallies, raised peculiar difficulties in the way of an enemy; and as the English are masters of the sea, the efforts of the natives were conveniently aided by occasional detachments of troops, and by supplies of arms and ammunition. The narrow channel which divides Italy from Sicily enabled the English to preserve that island entirely free from the French yoke, and from this station to watch and improve every opportunity that offered of alarming or disturbing the opposite shores. The English force in this quarter was never sufficient to authorize an attempt to drive the French from the southern provinces of Italy. Four or five thousand men appear to be the utmost amount of the forces which they could conveniently employ on one expedition. The French had twenty or thirty thousand men at hand, and could conveniently augment that number by auxiliary detachments from upper Italy. This scene of contention, therefore, was distinguished chiefly by a series of petty skirmishes between the French and the shepherds of Calabria, in the vallies and defiles of that province. Nor does the course of 1806 afford any other memorable occurence than a useless battle between the French and English at Maida. About the beginning of July, the English and Sicilians appear to have meditated the expulsion of the French from the province of further Calabria. This district forms the extremity of Italy on the south. It is a rugged peninsula, severed at the lower end by the strait of Messina, from Sicily. The French occupied many fortified posts in this province, but their greatest force was collected at Reggio, the chief town, situated at the southern end, on the strait of Messina, a post favourable either for making any attack on Sicily, or repelling any from the same quarter. While the French commander, Regnier, was occupied at this post in watching the opposite shores, the English, under general Stewart, landed near five thousand men, at the gulf of St. Euphemia, in the northern border of the province, and about fifty miles from Reggio. The French general, on receiving tidings of the event, lost no time in marching against them. He hastened northward, at the head of four thousand foot, and three hundred cavalry, leaving directions for an additional force of about three thousand to follow him. On the third of July he had advanced within ten miles of the English, who still continued at the place of disembarkation. The news of

Regnier's approach induced them to move forward, and the two armies accordingly came next day in sight of each other. The English were desirous of meeting the enemy before their army was reinforced by the division which Regnier had ordered to follow; but this junction was effected on the third, though the English were not apprized of this circumstance till after the battle. The French chose a very advantageous station for their camp. They posted themselves on the side of a woody hill, with a village behind them, and an impenetrable thicket on either side. The hill sloped into the plain of St. Euphemia, over which the English army was obliged to pass. A river, every where fordable, ran in front of the French encampment; but the sides of this stream were soft and marshy. Had it been the design of the French to wait an attack, they could not be more advantageously posted, while the situation of the English, in an open plain, with an inferior force, and unprovided with cavalry, was extremely hazardous. In these circumstances, the most prudent course that could be taken by the French was quietly to keep this station till the English were compelled, either to a desperate attempt on their entrenchments, or to make an inglorious and dangerous retreat. The usual impetuosity of Regnier, with the manifest advantage of cavalry, and of superior numbers, rendered the scheme of attacking the English on the plain not the safest, but, at the same time, an highly eligible one. Regnier accordingly left his inaccessible post, and marched down into the plain to meet his adversary. The field was sufficiently remote from the sea to prevent the co-operation of the English shipping, under Sir Sidney Smith; but that commander had placed his force in a manner most favourable for protecting the retreat of his countrymen.

According to the English statements, and these only have been published, the adverse forces amounted, on the English side, to four thousand eight hundred men, with sixteen pieces of cannon, and, on that of the French, to at least seven thousand men, with cavalry and artillery in a proportion not particularly ascertained or mentioned. The battle appears to have lasted but a short time, and to have ended in the total rout and dispersion of the French. The contest on one wing seems to have been decided by one of these inexplicable movements of feeling, which can enter into no military calculation. The opposing bands, on the right of the English line, after exchanging a few rounds, silently advanced against each other till their bayonets crossed, when the French suddenly broke their order and fled. On the left, the conflict was more obstinate and regular, and seems to have been principally decided by the sudden arrival of an English regiment, who landed the same morning from Messina, and who reached the field just as the French cavalry, after being repulsed from before the British front, were attempting to turn their left. The new comers, observing this movement, threw themselves into a small cover, and, by their fire, checked and disconcerted the enemy. After this there was a precipitate and confused retreat, accompanied with great slaughter of the French. The slain, wounded, and prisoners amounted to upwards of four thousand on the side of the vanquished; while the British lost forty-five killed, and two hundred and eighty-two wounded. Though this vic-

tory contributed to raise the reputation of the British arms, it does not seem to have contributed any thing to the conquest of the country. The French easily drew large reinforcements from the other provinces, and the English army re-embarked shortly after, and returned to Sicily. The rest of the year passed away without any military operations of any consequence in the Mediterranean. The French, shortly after this, had their hands fully occupied in Germany and Poland, and could not spare troops for the invasion of Sicily, while the destruction of their fleet in the preceeding year at Trafalgar disabled them from making any efforts at sea. They were contented to defend their own coasts and harbours, while the English, after this diversion in Calabria, were satisfied with the quiet possession of Sicily and Malta.

The naval power and commercial habits of the English naturally led them to attack the colonies and remote possessions of their enemies. During the present war, they have taken from the Dutch many valuable possessions in the east, and in Africa. After the peace of Amiens, they restored the Cape of Good Hope, but on the renewal of the war it was speedily re-conquered, and is now probably become a permanent acquisition. The island of Java, and the isles of France and Mauricius, with some settlements in Madagascar, were all that remained to France and her allies in the African and Asiatic seas. Java, on account of its intrinsic opulence, and the isle of France, from the convenience of its position to annoy the English commerce in the east, would naturally provoke a hostile attack. The latter is rendered nearly impregnable by peculiarities of situation, and the former, from the pressure of more immediate and important concerns, has been hitherto allowed to remain in the hands of the Dutch.

It is somewhat surprising, at first sight, that the dominions of Spain in South America have never been formally attacked by the English. They contain the richest mines of the precious metals known in the world. They abound with every vegetable product, to which the luxuries or necessities of European nations annex any value. They are commonly supposed to be very weakly defended, either by fortresses or soldiers. The people are thought to be discontented with their government, and ripe for any revolution; to be the prey of domestic faction; and disabled, by effeminacy, indolence, and a long inexperience of war, for any effectual resistance. Hence, in a war between England and Spain, these provinces would naturally present themselves as an easy and desirable prey to the former; yet no regular attempt was ever made to obtain a footing in South America, till the year 1806. Cuba and Trinidad have, indeed, at different times, been conquered; and Carthagena and Portobello, on the coast of Mexico, have been ineffectually attacked in former wars; but the splendid regions of La Plata, Chili, and Peru were unmolested.

After the revolution in North America, an opinion began to gain ground in England, that colonial establishments were on the whole injurious; that they diverted the enterprize, industry, and capital of a nation from the cultivation and improvement of its own soil to more specious but delusive projects, connected with remote regions, from

which no real or permanent advantage redounded to the parent state, equivalent to the wars, luxury, and enormous public expences which they necessarily occasion. The mind was naturally led to this conclusion, by reflecting on the expensive wars undertaken by England, for preserving, from the encroachments of France, these provinces of North America, which, in less than twenty years after their rescue was accomplished, revolted from the parent country, and involved it in a new war, far more expensive than the former, and from observing that Spain has become feeble and powerless since her empire was established in the New World. The imagination naturally supposes the colonies of Spain to be the cause of her decay, and as the same effect did not follow from the colonial system of France or Great Britain, we immediately suspect that this difference arises from some difference in the colonial systems of the several states. As vast quantities of silver are manufactured and exported in the Spanish colonies, and none in those of other countries, we immediately fancy that the true cause of the decay of Spain is discovered, and that an extensive manufacture, or rather importation of the precious metals is the bane of industry, liberty, and science, and military virtue. These opinions have had a powerful influence on the conduct of states, and made the Spanish dominions, rich, fertile, and extensive as they are, objects of abhorence, rather than of envy to their neighbours. These opinions contributed to their security from all external attacks.

As South America is found, on more accurate enquiry, to have really advanced in population since the first settlement, and to have a considerable demand for the manufactures of Europe, the British government, which imagines that the national prosperity cannot be more essentially promoted than by opening a new channel for trade, and finding out a new market for their manufactures, especially in times when they run some hazard of being excluded from the markets of Europe, have begun of late years to imagine that the Spanish colonies were worth obtaining, not for the sake of their mines or taxes, but merely of the custom which their numerous and luxurious inhabitants would afford to their own work-shops. The difficulty and expence of maintaining their authority over a people, so hostile in religion and manners, have not been thought of much importance. Perhaps indeed by robbing Spain of what, whether deservedly or not, she considers of great value, the chief advantage proposed by the British government was to have some pledges in its hands for an equitable peace.

Notwithstanding these general reflections and opinions, it does not appear that the British ministry had finally resolved to attack any of the Spanish settlements in South America. The attack upon Buenos Ayres was made without the knowledge or orders of the government, and by a fleet and army which they had destined to a different service. The armament under admiral sir Home Popham and general Baird, dispatched, in 1805, against the Cape of Good Hope, having soon effected the conquest of that colony, these officers remained for several months inactive on that station. Orders were dispatched to them in September, 1805, to proceed with the fleet and part of the army to

India; but these orders miscarried, and they were left till the month of April, in the ensuing year, without any particular directions for their future conduct. In this interval the admiral received a letter from an American captain at the cape, which painted in very strong colours the defenceless situation of the Spanish settlements on the River La Plata. The chief of these settlements, Buenos Ayres and Monte Video, he described as abounding with all kinds of provisions, as inhabited by a discontented and timid people, whom a few cannon-shot would frighten into a surrender, and whom the benefits of a free trade would speedily convert into voluntary and zealous adherents of a new government. This representation, added to some vague reports of the great wealth of these provinces, induced sir Home Popham to undertake the expedition with the whole naval force at the Cape. General Baird consented that a considerable detachment of the army, under General Beresford, should accompany it. These forces sailed from the Cape of Good Hope in April, and, after obtaining a reinforcement at St. Helena, they reached the mouth of the River La Plata about the eighth of July. This great river descends southward from the interior of the country, in a course of about two thousand miles. At the distance of two hundred and forty miles from its mouth it expands to the breadth of twenty-five miles, and continues to widen, till it is lost in the sea. The two extreme points of Maldonado and Anthonio are upwards of a hundred miles from each other. The two principal settlements on this river are Buenos Ayres and Monte Video, the former situated on the southwest bank of the river, about two hundred miles from the sea, and the latter on the opposite bank, less than a hundred miles within the northern cape. The former is the provincial capital, but both may aspire to the rank of great cities. The great breadth of this river near its mouth is the more remarkable, because it is not an inlet or bay of the sea, nor even subject to the vicissitudes of the tides. Both its breadth and its freshness arises from its shallowness, which, while it excludes the ocean, diffuses a small body of water over a wide space. This circumstance, together with the ignorance of the channels of the river, rendered the progress of the English extremely tedious and hazardous. They determined to make their first attempt at Buenos Ayres, as being undefended either by bulwarks or garrisons. While some of their ships blockaded the more considerable ports below, the rest proceeded slowly and warily up the river. They reached a point, about twelve miles below the capital, called Quelmay a Porichin, on the twenty-fifth of July. The facility with which they effected a landing in this place, several several thousands of Spanish cavalry being posted within two miles of it, appeared to justify the sanguine hopes of the assailants. The Spaniards were stationed on an eminence, between which and the shore there was a wet and marshy plain, which the English were obliged to cross. This morass in some degree checked their advance, and would have been fatal to the enterprize, if their opponents, who were only an untutored militia, had duly availed themselves of their advantages. They seem, however, scarcely to have waited the approach of the enemy, and fled

in confusion, leaving their ill-managed artillery behind them, as soon as the English had extricated themselves from the bog.

Having displaced this obstacle, they proceeded to attack the city. No opposition, however, was made, but a capitulation offered and accepted two days after the landing. Thus was this important colony surrendered to a slender band of adventurers, without any serious opposition, and thus were the expectations of the assailants justified as to the facility of the conquest. They appear, however, to have been greatly misled, as to the cause of this facility. The natives yielded thus precipitately, merely because they were taken by surprise. Subsequent events sufficiently proved that the English were grossly deceived as to the disaffection of the people to their ancient government, and the attachment with which a new system of commercial regulations was calculated to inspire them towards their new masters.

When the tidings of this conquest reached England, it excited in government, and in the trading part of the nation, the utmost exultation and joy. Councils were immediately held for devising means to extract from it the greatest national advantage; the project of opening the trade to all neutral nations, and especially to North America, proposed by some who were anxious to secure the allegiance of the colonists, by unbounded advantages in trade, was speedily stifled, and the old exclusive maxims adopted, as most conducive to the interest of British manufactures, and sufficiently favourable to the colonists themselves. The trade was put, by a royal proclamation, almost exactly on the same footing with that of the other British colonies: previously, however, the commanders in Buenos Ayres had reduced the duties on British commodities imported in British ships from thirty-five and a half, to twelve and a half per cent; a regulation confirmed for the present, with some slight exception, by the government. It was the general persuasion in Great Britain, that the numerous inhabitants of this great province were languishing with fervent desire after the products of Great Britain; that the small quantity of these products, which heretofore found their way into the country, were greedily purchased, notwithstanding the enormous price accumulated on them by the scanty supply, the circuitous route through the Spanish ports, and excessive taxation. They fondly imagined that the removal of these obstacles would enlarge the sale to an enormous extent, and create a demand as great, while it was supplied with objects of exchange of the same kind and abundance, as in the trade of North America. The new trade, though not without restrictions, would be boundless liberty to the colonists, when compared with their ancient fetters, and would secure their allegiance by bonds stronger than those of iron or of oaths. As to national and religious prejudices, the time was long past since the English had grown perfectly indifferent to the religion of their subjects. They meddle not with the legal customs, domestic habits, or modes of worship of the conquered people, and are contented with having in their own hands their trade and public revenue. Hence they naturally flattered themselves, that the abolition of commercial restraints, being positively advantageous, would reconcile the people to a system which made no other change

in their condition. Whatever truth, in general, there may be in these reflections, the English government were undoubtedly much mistaken in imagining, that the capture of the chief town was the conquest of the whole province, or that the remaining posts could be as easily subdued as the metropolis had been. Great likewise was their error as to the wonder-working power, which they ascribed to commercial liberty, in dissolving the ties which held the colony and parent country together.

CHAP. V.

THE English power seems to have extended but little beyond the precincts of the city. The neighbouring villages submitted only from the fear of military execution, and the English troops, till augmented by reinforcements from England, were too few to enlarge their conquest. The shipping could only blockade the other ports on the river. After the colonists had recovered from their first astonishment, they began to meditate on a scheme of domestic insurrection, and we are told that projects of this kind were greatly favoured by the lenity which the British commanders thought it eligible to display, in order to conciliate the confidence and gratitude of the people. Liniers, a French officer in the Spanish service, exerted himself, with great industry, in the districts north of the river, to which he retired, in collecting and arming the people. A secret correspondence was established between him and some leading persons within the city, who employed themselves in gaining over the other townsmen, and the people of the neighbouring villages. For this purpose, money, conveyed to them by Liniers, was liberally disbursed, arms were distributed and secreted, and a regular insurrection concerted, under the auspices and controul of Puiredon, a magistrate of Buenos Ayres, and a man of great art and address.

A considerable force being collected, under Liniers at Colonia, on the opposite shore, the English admiral endeavoured to assemble a naval force sufficient to attack Colonia. The shoaliness of the water allowed only small vessels to act, and the passage of the river from the north side, when the wind was fair, could not be effectualy obstructed. All that remained, therefore, was to drive the enemy from so convenient a post. The natural difficulties, incident to mounting the river, were augmented by a severe gale, which prevailed between the first and the fifth of August. The English, with all their exertions, could not gain a station suitable for attacking Colonia, and Liniers received no interruption in crossing the river with his whole force. As the city was a large, open place, incapable of regular defence, and as the inhabitants betrayed symptoms of a design to revolt, it was the obvious policy of the British commanders to meet the invader at a distance. Accordingly, a successful attack was made, by five hundred of their troops, on fifteen hundred of the enemy, about fourteen miles from the city, on the second of August. This, however, was a momentary check; for the torrents of rain which fell on the sixth, seventh, and eighth of August, disabled the English, who consisted only of infantry, from retarding the approaches of the enemy. The Spaniards, on the contrary, being abundantly supplied with horses, found bad roads of little consequence, and approached the town in several directions. On the evening of the tenth, they drew near the city, and, dividing themselves into many columns, occupied all the avenues to the place; at

the same time, the townsmen took up arms, and filled the tops of the houses and churches, preparing to co-operate in the attack of the army without. The Spaniards wisely aimed at effecting their object without a general action, and to place themselves in such a manner, among houses and streets, as to destroy their enemy without hazard to themselves. Finding their station untenable, the British commanders meditated a retreat on the night of the tenth, across the River Chello; but this design was defeated by tempestuous weather. The next day, however, passed without an attack being made, and it was not till the morning of the twelfth, that hostilities seriously began. The English occupied the castle and great square, and planted their cannon towards the principal streets which led into the castle and square. The enemy advanced, with cannon, along the avenues, and at the same time filled the tops of the houses and churches, which overlooked the castle and square, with troops who could pour their fire upon all below, without any hazard to themselves. The assailants in the streets were repeatedly repulsed, but the fire from the roofs of the houses made terrible havock, and threatened them with utter destruction. A surrender, therefore, was inevitable, and a capitulation being proposed by general Beresford, it was readily accepted. The Spaniards engaged on this occasion are computed to exceed twenty thousand men. Half of this number were citizens, and were variously and incompletely armed. The rest were collected from the country. The loss on the side of the English was almost entirely occasioned by the firing from the houses. It amounted to a hundred and sixty-five killed and wounded. Seven hundred of the Spaniards were killed or wounded in the streets. Thus, after a turbulent and precarious possession of fifteen days, were the British expelled from their conquest, and the nation at home were employed in framing regulations for its government, and dispatching valuable cargoes to supply its demands, several months after the Spaniards were quietly re-possessed of the place.

The capture of all the land forces of the British disabled them for the present from making any new attempt to regain their lost footing. The shipping remained entire, and the admiral employed himself in cruizing about the river*, and in cutting off all maritime communication between the ports of the enemy. On the twenty-ninth of August, a small reinforcement sailed from the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived early in October in the river, under lieutenant-colonel Backhouse. This force was too weak to make a new attempt upon the capital, but it was necessary to secure some station on the shore, in order to refresh the troops, and procure horses for the cavalry. They first fixed their attention upon Monte Video. They at first thought themselves sufficiently strong to take this place by assault, on the side edging on

* Our conceptions of transactions in this mighty river may be aided by reflecting that, from Buenos Ayres to the sea, it expands to the same breadth, and nearly to the same length, as the British channel from Dover to the land's end. At Buenos Ayres, the river is wider than the channel between Dover and Calais, and the terminating capes are as distant from each other as the Ushant and Scily Isles. How wonderful that this great expanse should yet be a *current of fresh* water, though accessible, by so broad a mouth, to the sea.

the water. The batteries on that face being silenced by the fire of the ships, the troops would be enabled to land and complete the conquest. This attempt was accordingly made on the twenty-eighth of October, but the water proved, on the trial, to be too shallow to allow large ships to approach near enough for this purpose.

This design failing, they resolved to attack the town of Maldonado, which is situated near the northern point of the river, where it opens on the sea. It is placed at the bottom of a bay, which forms an excellent harbour, and which is defended by the island of Goretti, strongly fortified. It was proposed to land some troops, and attack the town from within, while Goretti should be assailed by the ships from without. On the twenty-ninth, the commander, without opposition, landed with four hundred men, and advanced against the village, which was defended by about six hundred horsemen, and two pieces of cannon. Their opposition, however, was soon overpowered. About fifty were killed and wounded, while the assailants lost only four. The heavy batteries towards the water having no defence on the land side, made no opposition, and those on the island of Goretti surrendered to the fleet on being summoned. The latter was provided with twenty-four pieces of cannon, with ammunition complete. The English were fortunate in gaining, with so little difficulty, a station so convenient for their shipping, and for procuring horses and cattle.

A considerable reinforcement, under sir Samuel Auchmuty, having been dispatched from England, arrived at Maldonado, on the fifth of January, 1807. After some deliberation, it was resolved to bend their whole force against Monte Video, a considerable and wealthy city, inferior only to the capital in population, but possessed of superior advantages in many other respects. The English were encouraged to the attempt, by a belief that the defences of this town were weak, and the garrison but ill disposed to make resistance. It proved, however, to be exactly fortified, to be strongly defended by a hundred and sixty pieces of cannon, and by a numerous and resolute garrison. The assailants were unprovided with the means for carrying on a regular siege, and were ultimately obliged to rely on the hazardous and uncertain issue of a general assault. A suitable place for landing the troops was discovered, about seven miles eastward of the town. Its situation was adapted to allow the covering vessels to approach so close as to command the beach. A considerable body of Spaniards assembled at this spot, with some pieces of artillery, to oppose them; but the guns of the ships kept them at a distance, and, though the weather was unfavourable, the soldiers landed, and gained the neighbouring heights without loss, on the eighteenth of October.

The operations on shore could receive little assistance from the ships. They could make no impression on a fortress well defended on all sides, and which the shallowness of the water, would not allow them to approach within the distance to which shot might be carried. The squadron, however, was so disposed as to prevent any escape from the harbour, and to impede all communication with Colonia and Buenos Ayres. The boats proceeded along shore to take off the wounded soldiers, while the covering vessels were so stationed as to protect this

service. The army, reinforced by eight hundred seamen and mariners, advanced towards the city on the nineteenth. About four thousand Spanish horse occupied two heights on the front and right of the right column. A heavy fire of round and grape shot opened from these heights on the advancing army; but the troops in front being dispersed by a charge from the English, those on the flank retreated without coming to blows, and the assailants were suffered to gain a station about two miles from the citadel. Their advanced posts occupied the suburbs, and some small parties were posted close to the works; but in the evening the principal part of the suburbs were evacuated. The next morning about six thousand of the garrison, with several guns, advanced against the English in two columns, one composed of cavalry, and the other of infantry. The former attempted to turn the left of the English line. The latter assaulted the right, but, after a fierce struggle, were compelled to fly. The right column, observing the fate of their companions, retired without fighting. After this repulse, the English were allowed to sit down quietly before the town. The island of Ratonis, which commanded the harbour, being in possession of the Spaniards, enabled them to annoy the besiegers, by means of their gun boats. A battery of two guns was therefore constructed to keep these boats in check, and posts were extended to the harbour, so as completely to shut in the garrison on the land side. Its communication with the country, however, was still open by water, and troops, provisions, and water, the wells which usually supply the town being in the hands of the English, were conveyed to them by boats. On the twenty-fifth, the English opened batteries of four 24 pounders, and two mortars, and all the frigates and smaller vessels approached as near as they safely could, and cannonaded the town. Three days after, a battery of six 24 pounders, was raised within a thousand yards of the south east bastion of the citadel, but, though the parapet was soon demolished, the rampart sustained but little injury. The assailants were wholly unprepared for a regular siege. All the powder which the ships of war, the transports, and a fleet of merchant vessels were able to supply, could not afford a consumption of two more days. As the last expedient, therefore, the English erected a battery, as near as possible to a wall, by the south gate, that joined the works to the sea, intending, if a breach could be effected, to make an assault. Six guns were accordingly opened against it, at the distance of six hundred yards, and, though they were exposed to a very superior fire from the enemy, a practicable breach was effected on the second of February. An hour before day-break, on the ensuing day, the troops marched to the assault. They had nearly reached the breach before they were discovered, and then a destructive fire from every gun that could be made to bear upon it, and the musketry of the garrison, opened upon them. During the night, the Spaniards had barricaded the breach with hides, so as to render it nearly inaccessible, while the darkness was so great, that the head of the column missed the opening. Even when it was approached, it was so shut up, that it was for some time mistaken for the untouched wall. A quarter of an hour elapsed before it was discerned, and then, all difficulties being gra-

dually surmounted, the assailants entered the town. Cannon were placed at the head of the principal streets, and their fire for a short time was destructive, but the troops advancing in all directions, cleared the streets and batteries with their bayonets, and overturned the cannon. Meanwhile, a second detachment had also followed, which also missed the breach, and twice passed through the fire of the batteries before they found it. At daylight every thing was in possession of the English, except the citadel, which at first made a show of resistance, but soon surrendered. It does not appear that any plundering or violence took place in the city. Thus the conquest was effected, fifteen days after the landing of the English, with the loss of 142 killed, and 427 wounded on their side, while the Spaniards had 800 killed, 500 wounded, with the governor, and 2000 officers and men prisoners. The cannon, cannonades, mortars, and howitzers, which fell to the victors, amounted to three hundred and forty-five pieces. Considering the imperfect preparation of the besiegers, this enterprize was a perilous one, and the conduct and valour of the English certainly merit praise, though how far they are culpable, for having failed to acquire due information of the state of the colony, and for the dangerous mistakes they committed on that head, is a topic of some doubt.

CHAP. VI.

WHILE these transactions were taking place in America, war had again broken out in Europe, and was accompanied with more memorable events, and signal revolutions, than any previous contest on that great theatre.

The policy of the French had been remarkably successful in preserving and strengthening their friendly connections with Prussia. This policy, indeed, was of a simple and obvious kind, and consisted in bribing the Prussian government into connivance and neutrality, when France was at war with other powers, by giving it a large portion of the spoil. Prussia, having, like all other states, no other object in view, but the increase of her power and territory, was contented with gaining this object, and she had reason to applaud her prudence, or good fortune, if this desirable end could be accomplished without the hazards and expences of war. If the state of things were such, that France had reason to dread her co-operation with England or Austria, her neutrality would of course be purchased by some sacrifices and concessions, and the Prussians thought themselves bound to exert all their talents and address, in order that their neutrality should be sold for not less than it was worth.

The issue of the last war between France and Austria certainly produced a considerable change in the relative situation of Prussia and France. Austria being at length reduced to that condition, in which her hostility was even more desirable than her amity to her prosperous rival, and the neutrality of Prussia having ceased to be an object of desire, or her enmity of dread to France, it cannot be imagined that the system of munificence and deference, dictated hitherto to the French by fear and interest, would any longer be pursued. We cannot have the same solicitude for the boat which has carried us fairly over the stream, as before the passage was made. The companion that lifted us up the hill, cannot expect to receive that deference and favour which was paid him while ascending, and which was paid by us through an avowed regard to our own interest, and was received by him on the same selfish principle. Prussia had no right to complain of France, for discontinuing the purchase of her favour, when that favour was no longer of use, since an adequate price had been previously given for it, and given merely because it was wanted. Nothing can be more absurd than to think that gratitude or justice has any concern in the intercourse or compacts of nations, or rather than to imagine that any nation will be brought to allow that there is any justice in sacrificing the least advantage of their own, to the greatest of another community.

The first event that startled the Prussian government, with an apprehension that her friendship had lost its customary value in the eyes of France, was the violation of her territory in October, 1805, in consequence of which the Austrian armies were defeated in Suabia. The Prussian government deeply felt this wound, and its alarm was only

augmented by the rapid career of the French in Austria and Moravia. Before she had time to take her resolutions, however, the treaty of Presburg was formed, and the golden opportunity of interfering with effect was lost. Her complaint respecting the breach of her neutrality was heard with little concern, but this not being, to the French, the favourable moment to commence a new war, they offered Prussia the possession of Hanover, on condition of her ceding, in return, certain districts on the lower Rhine, and acceding to the peace of Presburg. Hanover was too valuable a province, and its situation made it too dangerous in the hands of a neighbour like France, not to be readily accepted at the stipulated price. To palliate the loss of Hanover to England, it was easy for the Prussian government to suggest, that, since it was irrecoverably lost to that power, it could not be a point of much importance by whom, its friends or enemies, it was possessed; or, rather, that the cause of general security required its transfer to Prussia, more than its restitution to Great Britain, since, as a Prussian province, it would weigh more in the balance against France, than as a British one. However, to palliate the injury, Prussia consented to receive this gift from Buonaparte, only on condition that the gift should, on a general peace, be ratified by Great Britain. This condition was by no means agreable to France, but no dispute was raised about it, till the Russians had withdrawn from Moravia, and the French had regained their posts upon the Rhine.

As the prosperity of England is supposed, by foreigners, to rise wholly from her commerce, and as the French were now left at liberty to prosecute their schemes of vengeance against their rival unmolested, they resolved to exert their present superiority in debarring England, as much as possible, from the trade of the rest of Europe. Being now in a condition to dispise the anger of Prussia, they not only refused to allow of the condition adopted with regard to the Prussian tenure of Hanover, but required Prussia to exclude all English commodities from her ports on the Baltic.

The danger of a rupture with France was a motive to which the humiliation of Austria had given a new and formidable existence, and Prussia reluctantly, so far at least as respects hostile measures towards England, complied with the new demands of France.

The French continued to maintain a great number of their troops beyond the Rhine. Such was the situation of Austria and Prussia, that they were obliged to acquiesce in the frivolous pretexts alledged by France, to excuse the continuance of these troops in Germany; but this circumstance offered Buonoparte an opportunity of extending his influence in this quarter, which he could not fail to improve.

The German empire is well known to be a confederation of states, varying from each other in extent of territory, and in political and religious constitution. The head of this confederacy is nominally elected for life, but the dignity has been really hereditary in the archdukes of Austria for some ages. The relations among the members of the German empire, and between these members and the emperor their head, have undergone innumerable revolutions since the formation of that political body. These changes have, in some respects, however,

been gradual, and exhibited the constant decay of those bonds which held the various members together. Every successive age has diminished more and more the authority of the head over the members, and set the members more independent, constitutionally speaking, of each other. Time has superseded the ties created by fundamental pacts now grown obsolete and nugatory, by those natural relations which arise out of the actual distribution of power and dominion. Austria and Prussia have become powerful kingdoms, and the rest of the German states pay homage and acknowledge dependence merely as is dictated by their interests as sovereign states without the least regard to their duties as members of the Germanic body. Foreign nations, as Russia, England, Sweden, and France, consider these states as enjoying the same political existence with themselves, and wars and alliances are made with them exactly on the same principle. At the close of the eighteenth century, the German empire was virtually dissolved; names and forms, indeed, still continued, but the essence was undoubtedly annihilated.

The three great powers on whom the lesser German states were more or less dependent were Austria, Prussia, and France. This dependence was wholly unaffected by the rights and obligations of the parties, as members of the same political body, and arose from the power each one possessed of repelling or inflicting injury. The states of the north of Germany were, by their local situation, more immediately exposed to the tyranny of Prussia; those of the south to that of Austria, and those of the west to that of France. As all the smaller states lay in that path which the French, Austrians, and Prussians were obliged to pursue in their wars with each other, they were generally obliged to take a positive or negative part in the contests of these great rivals, and were either compelled to range their military force under one or other banner, or to abandon their territories to battles and sieges, in the issue of which they had no proper or natural concern. It was the policy of the hostile parties to enlist in their own cause as many of the intermediate states as possible, and each one exerted, for this end, all the means he possessed, in the form of persuasion, bribery, menaces, and violence.

In consequence of the successes of the French in their late wars with the German emperor, all the districts, formerly belonging to the the empire west of the Rhine, had been incorporated with the French dominions. The princes on their borders, chiefly those of Baden, Wirtemburg, and Bavaria, who, in these wars, had acted as confederates of France, were amply rewarded for their fidelity by accessions of territory or dignity, procured at the expense of Austria or of other princes, her allies. Their submission to France depended solely on her power to reward their attachment or punish their defection, and this power being now at its greatest height, their submission, consequently, was most obsequious and implicit, and no change in their nominal relations to each other, or to Prussia, or Austria, could possibly increase it, or prolong its continuance after France had lost the power of exacting it. By abolishing all their local and peculiar constitutions, and annexing them absolutely to France, they would undoubt-

edly in time acquire feelings and habits in common with the rest of the nation, and adhere to one head with the zeal and fidelity, not of vassals impelled by fear, but of children attracted by love. This process had at different times produced this effect on those portions of the empire which formerly existed west of the Rhine, and which constituted the circle of Burgundy, and some part of the circles of Westphalia, the Upper Rhine, and Lower Rhine; and to any project of this kind there certainly existed no insuperable or even formidable obstacle at present, in relation to the greater part of Suabia, Bavaria, and Franconia, and what still constituted the circles of the two Rhines. As changes of this kind, however, are best effected by degrees, the French wisely adopted, as the first step to this revolution, a scheme containing nothing shocking, either from its violence or novelty, to the princes of these countries. They proposed to detach these princes from their ancient connection with Prussia as members of the same political body, and with Austria as feudatories of an elective and national head. A new union was to take place among them under the name of *The Confederation of the Rhine*, of which the emperor of the French was to be hereditary head, with the title of *Protector*. The same obligations, of co-operation and alliance with France in time of war, which now existed in fact, was to become a fundamental and inviolable compact, and the feudal incidents of escheat and forfeiture were henceforth to redound to the profit of the French sovereign. After the terms of this new alliance had been settled in separate and private conferences, the agent of the French, at Ratisbon, presented, on the first of August, 1806, to the diet assembled, according to ancient usage, in that city, a paper, announcing this important change. In this paper are enumerated the recent changes in the constitution of the empire, occasioned by the extinction of the electorate of Hanover, the annexation of a part of Pomerania to the kingdom of Sweden, and the exaltation of the dukedoms of Bavaria and Wirtemberg into kingdoms. It enlarges, moreover, on the general decay of the empire as a political body; the futility of its decrees; the want of authority in its tribunals; and the incompatible obligations which may arise from the constitutional relations between its members with its ancient head, and their actual alliances with foreigners. These circumstances, it informs us, have induced certain princes, which it names, to renounce their connection with the emperor, and to form a new confederation among themselves, and have influenced the emperor of the French to refuse any longer to acknowledge the German constitution, to recognize and approve the new confederacy, and to become its head and protector. Though the intermeddling craft, the tyrannical incroachments, and the irresistable power of France, occasioned, directly or indirectly, the chief of these changes, the blame is artfully tranferred in this paper to *time*, to the three coallitions, to Prussia, to Sweden, and to the treaty of Presburg. The French emperor, while he ceases to acknowledge the empire, explicity admits the sovereignty of the states which form it, and promises to treat them henceforward as independent states. His motives for his present resolutions are, he says, entirely pacific, and he accepts his new dignity merely that he may the

more effectually interpose between the weak and the strong, and preserve peace among rivals and enemies. At the same time, papers to the same effect were proposed to the diet by the kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the electors archchancellor and of Baden, and the princes of Hesse Darmstadt, Hohenzollern, Hecsingen, Hohenzollern Simaringen, Nassau Wielburg, Nassau Usingen, Salm-salm, Salm Kyburg, and three or four other princes.

The principles of this new confederacy are worthy of little curiosity, except in relation to themslves. No new compact can subject them more absolutely to the influence of France, unless it were a compact which annihilated their political or separate existence altogether. By this new constitution each state possesses the right of internal government, judicial, fiscal, and military, as before; all common concerns, and mutual disputes are to be settled at a diet to be held at Frankfort, which is divided into two assemblies or colleges, one of kings, and the other of princes. The elector archchancellor, who is henceforward to be called the prince primate, is to preside in this assembly, and its forms of deliberation, the mode of executing its decrees, and the relative rank of its members, are to be settled by an instrument which the primate, within a given time, is to draw up, and which the confederates are bound to accept as presented by him. The subordination of the league to France is secured by vesting the protector with the power of appointing the prince primate, who holds his dignity for life; by fixing the general assembly or diet at Frankfort, which is vested in the primate in absolute sovereignty; and by making the primate president of the congress. Between the French and the members of the league, singly and collectively, an alliance is formed, by which every continental war in which each party is engaged, shall be common to both. They are to take up arms only on the summons of the protector of the league, and the military force respectively supplied is in the proportion of two hundred thousand from France, and sixty-three thousand from the league*.

The articles of confederation contain likewise many stipulations for exchanges of territory between the princes of the league, and many annexations of the smaller principalities and lordships within its limits to the larger ones. Throughout Germany there are a vast number of estates which are held for life, by ecclesiastical or knightly tenures. They are generally very small, and contributed on this occasion to swell the larger states, a pension for life being secured to the ejected proprietors, by way of compensation for their losses. The extention of the league was likewise provided for by declaring that future members

* The relative extent and importance of these states may be inferred from the following proportion in which they contribute to the common defence:

France	200,000 men
Bavaria	30,000
Wirtemberg	12,000
Baden	8,000
Berg	5,000
Darmstadt	4,000
The remainder collectively	4,000

might be admitted at the discretion of the diet. The Austrian emperor in renouncing, by a formal instrument, the dignity of head of the German empire, very justly observes, that the empire was in effect dissolved by the treaty of Presburg, and that he is willing to abolish the name since the substance is irrecoverably gone. His conduct on this occasion, however, must have been adopted with infinite reluctance, since mere rank and dignity is always dear to the human heart, and as long as the imperial claims existed, though only on paper, the hope could not be entirely extinguished of some day giving them a more substantial existence. His rank among the princes of Europe, formerly so splendid and honourable, was first impaired by the assumption of the imperial title by the czar of Muscovy. It received a new and severe blow, when Buonaparte assumed the same title, and this injury was very imperfectly compensated by allowing him to convert his elective into a hereditary dignity, and to exalt the archduke and king into emperor of Austria. This last act has reduced him fairly below the level of his rival, and the *empire* may be said to have returned once more to the successor of Charlemagne. Catherine II had, with great dexterity, insinuated herself into the affairs of her western neighbours, chiefly by prevailing on them to allow her to join in the guarantee of the treaty of Westphalia, which fixed the condition of the German empire, and made her consent necessary to any important change in it. But Russia being at this time at war with France, her consent to the utter dissolution of that empire could not, consequently, be either demanded or obtained. This, therefore, was an additional brand to the fire of hostility which raged between them. Yet, as the pretentions of Russia to intermeddle in the affairs of the German empire, without being asked to do so by some party immediately concerned in them, were grossly absurd, as the present changes were merely nominal, and affected not Russia even in the vain consideration of precedence, or dignity, the fire could not be expected to burn much more fiercely on this account. The revolution was indeed mentioned in the hostile proclamations of this power as a new insult and new injury, but we cannot suppose, that, in relation either to Russia or England, it would raise any serious obstacle in the way of peace, when others were removed. With regard to the Prussian monarch, he was, indeed, more immediately affected by the consequences of this change than Russia; but if circumstances compelled Austria to submit to it, Austria, who suffered by it both in power and dignity, to so much greater an extent, what opposition was it either justifiable or prudent in Prussia to make? France acquired, by this change, neither influence nor territory which she had not before, and, in truth, the terms of this confederacy being voluntary on her side, so far as they set any bounds to her power, these limitations, being more than she was under any necessity of admitting, were topics rather of exultation than complaint to other states. At any rate, the deed was not merely designed, but already executed. No efforts or menaces could induce the parties concerned to dissolve their league, and, therefore, in proportion as it was the policy and interest of Prussia to prevent its formation, were her motives strong for submitting to it

when made. In truth, however, the pride of Prussia was extremely mortified, and her ambition disappointed, by the dissolution of the empire. Prussia contributed, on all occasions, her wishes and efforts to the depression of Austria, not merely for the sake of territorial security and aggrandizement, but in order to decorate herself in future with imperial honours. As the empire would be given to the strongest, her own superiority would be followed inevitably by that splendid consequence, and the empire in her hands would become an empire indeed. The French could not overlook so obvious a road to the favour of Prussia as was opened to their artifices by this natural and allowable ambition, and accordingly they strengthened their alliance with her, by holding out the imperial crown as the price of it. How greatly then must have been the resentment and vexation of that power on finding this darling object ravished from him forever by the destruction of the empire itself?

The French seem to have been inclined to alleviate this disappointment as much as possible. They accordingly proposed that the other states of Germany not included in the Rhenish league should associate under the auspices of Prussia. That power already exercised an indirect influence over the petty princes and states of Upper and Lower Saxony and Westphalia, an influence of the same kind, and enforced by the same weapons, as that of France over the states in Suabia, and on the Rhine. In war she was accustomed to demand their co-opperation without scruple; to overrun their territories, and seize upon their towns and fortresses, without the ceremony of asking leave; to enroll their young men by force in her armies, and levy destructive contributions without any rule or motive but her own convenience. France now offered to sanction a plan by which this tyranny might be methodized and perpetuated, and the whole of northern Germany be ultimately absorbed into the Prussian monarchy. As Sweden was at this time at war with France, and as Sweden had acquired, by conquest in a former age, some provinces of the German empire situated on the Baltic, she proposed, with the double view of reconciling Prussia to the revolution in the south, and of sowing dissension between her and Sweden, that the Prussian armies should take possession of the Swedish territories. This offer was more advantageous in appearance than the former, but in reality was far less so, because it was merely a permission to go to war with an unoffending power, rendered formidable by courage, if not by numbers, and who might justly be expected to make an obstinate, if not a long or successful resistance; a power, also, which in this cause might count safely on the formidable succour of both England and Russia.

If we call to mind that in all these offers France was guided by the sense of her own interest, and that Prussia was influenced in accepting or rejecting them by the same undisguised principle, it will not be surprizing that a change of circumstances should produce a change of councils; and that what France was willing to give Prussia in exchange for a certain advantage, at one time, she should afterwards make no scruple to take back and give to another, in exchange for advantages still greater. Thus the French, deceived by the incessant de-

clamations of Mr. Fox in favour of a peace with France, imagined that the accession of that minister to office afforded a favourable opportunity for gaining advantageous terms from England, and, in consequence, invited him to a conference on that subject. The English agents began with demanding Hanover, and something like an indirect compliance was given, though merely orally, and in the most confidential manner. This compliance was likewise fettered with conditions, that Prussia should be indemnified with adequate cessions to be made in other parts of Germany. As the *uti possidetis* was to be the ground of the treaty, and all transfers therefore to be mutual, they flattered themselves that the foolish solicitude of the English for regaining Hanover would tempt them to purchase it by abandoning Sicily. The English, however, were more cunning than their opponents imagined; they insisted on retaining all their conquests, and, at the same time, on having Hanover restored to them. It is easily conceived that they meant not to adhere to the last demand, but that, to begin with it, allowed them to make a firmer stand behind it. If granted, it would do them no direct service, but it would break the formidable alliance between Prussia and France, and even the mere claim, they well knew, would infuse jealousy and alarm into the mind of the former. It is wonderful that the equivocal consent to restore Hanover had probably the consequence intended by those who demanded it, and was the principal, if not the only motive, that prompted the war that ensued: yet so blind are mankind to the future, that this war, so long and ardently desired by the enemies of France, appears hitherto to have been the most fortunate event in her destiny.

CHAP. VII.

THE Prussian government, on receiving an intimation* of the willingness of France to restore Hanover, was justly exasperated and alarmed. It showed her, what, indeed, she could hardly fail of knowing before, that the professions of France were hollow and fallacious, and that her friendship, dictated by convenience, would cease when its convenience ceased; but what was of most importance, it showed her that the time had actually arrived, when France ceased to regard her friendship as of any value. The alarm and jealousy of Prussia was awakened, not only by those and many other symptoms of versatility, but by the continuance of the French armies in Germany.

It is difficult at first sight to discover the motives which induced the French to keep their troops on the east side of the Rhine. They had no complaints to make, and could harbour no suspicions with regard either to Austria or Prussia. Though the new league was formed under the influence of fear, yet the presence of troops, or at least, of so many troops, was not necessary to give its due impulse to this motive. Russia was not likely to approach the banks of the Rhine, and the war in Dalmatia was not to be finished by encampments on the Meyn or the Weser. It is possible that the French foresaw the tendency of such measures as convenience might dictate with regard to England, Russia, and Sweden, to drive Prussia to war, and that, with their usual caution, they determined to have armies ready on her borders, either to intimidate or overpower her resistance. And yet the presence of the French troops in Germany, after all pretexts for their stay was removed, must have operated more powerfully than any other cause, to drive Prussia to arms. These troops, instead of withdrawing, were continually reinforced, and even made advances, impossible to be explained on pacific principles, towards the Prussian frontiers. In this state of things, Prussia resolved on war, and whether there was wisdom and true policy in this determination is susceptible of endless controversy.

If the French were determined gradually to make inroads on the Prussian territory, to begin with extending the bounds of the new confederacy, so as to comprehend all the minor states of the empire, without regard to the claims of Prussia over her immediate neighbours,

* Might not some cunning agent whisper in the ear of the Prussian minister at London,—"You see what you have to trust to. Bonaparte has no objection to give us Hanover. Here is the original of lord Yarmouth's letter to prove it. You might always have supposed that Bonaparte would sacrifice you, when his convenience prescribed it, but now you see the time for doing it has actually come. He offers us Hanover, if we will give him Sicily."—If the English had merely insisted upon Hanover, and the French upon Sicily, the compromise was obvious, but the English said, haughtily enough, "We must keep Sicily, and have Hanover too."

and to end with the utter, and, if needful, the violent destruction of the monarchy itself; it seems as if it were proper to check the first advances, however hazardous the attempt might prove, because every new step, if unresisted by Prussia, would make her ultimate resistance more difficult and dangerous. Such designs could be known beforehand only by tokens and prognostics, on the nature or significance of which no two observers could be equally well informed, or, if equally informed, would be likely to concur in their decision. That the Prussian government had the highest interest in forming a right decision; and that their opportunities of knowledge were greater than could come within the sphere of another's observation, must be readily allowed. That it was sincere in its apprehension of hostile designs, and impending evils, may justly be inferred from its embarking in a contest, which the most sanguine advocates of war were obliged to acknowledge to be infinitely perilous. The views of France may indeed be inferred with sufficient accuracy, from her refusal to comply with the three conditions of peace tendered by Prussia, and which consisted in withdrawing her troops from Germany, in allowing Prussia to include in a new confederacy all the states not comprehended in the league of the Rhine, and in giving up certain districts and towns on the Lower Rhine which the French had lately usurped without the permission of a treaty, yet it may be said that as Prussia had no evident power to enforce these terms, and as they were steps already gained by France, nothing but terror, excited by these menaces, could induce her to retract them. Pride will frequently hinder us from revoking an unjust step, when the inducement is conveyed in the form of threats, though our sense of justice might prevent us from advancing any further in the same road. What France was willing to allow, as to the formation of a northern confederacy, we have no means of knowing, yet the pretext of leaving princes to their own choice in that particular was so obvious and specious, that it could scarcely fail of being urged by the French, and this choice, being merely a choice of masters, the bias in favour of him who had most power to protect and reward was too favourable to Bonaparte, to be spontaneously repelled and counteracted by him.

When the greatness of the French power, and the existing war between them and the English, Russians, and Swedes, are considered, it may naturally occur to us that Prussia should have reinforced herself by the alliance and succour of these powers before she commenced hostilities: but it must be remembered, that a quarrel actually subsisted between Prussia on one hand, and Sweden and England on the other, a quarrel which could not be made up, and superseded by an efficacious co-operation, in a time short enough to meet the present exigence; that Russia was so remote, and the march of her armies retarded by so many natural and artificial obstacles, that her aid was never in season; besides, the vicinity of the French armies, and the vigilance of their councils, would never have allowed the enemy time to strengthen himself by auxiliaries from so great a distance as England or Russia. If war was to be made at all, no time was to be lost in making it. The masterly policy of France had indeed been exerted

to procure some delay, because delay, within a certain point, could only be advantageous to herself. Domestic preparations for war, under whatever pretext or disguise, carried on in Prussia, was a hint for equal preparations on the other side, and, unfortunately for Prussia, the numbers and positions of her enemies were such, that delay could only augment the difficulties of defence.

At this crisis, an impartial observer, who reflected on the great military force of France, on the skill of her generals, and the valour of her soldiers, purchased by fourteen years of successful war, reinforced by a great military aid from the new confederacy, and freed from every collateral obstacle or foreign interference, might admit some apprehension of the issue with regard to Prussia. And yet when he recollected that the Prussian army amounted to at least two hundred thousand men, thoroughly disciplined, and amply provided, that this mighty force was actuated by the most ardent and unanimous zeal in their present cause, were to fight upon their own ground, in the midst of a vast number of the strongest fortresses in Europe, for arming and supplying which the government had enjoyed the amplest opportunities and fullest leisure; when he recollected the conduct and fortune of the Prussians under their great Frederick, who successively resisted the combination of all the surrounding nations, and the conquest of whose country was not effected by many splendid victories, gained by the superior numbers of his enemies in the field, he might naturally conclude, that the chances of success were by no means favourable to the French. Should the event of battles be unprosperous to Prussia, he would still suppose that the strength of the victors would be exhausted and annihilated by a series of long and obstinate sieges, by a warfare tediously protracted in a hostile country, and exposed to a thousand accidents from inclement seasons, epidemical diseases, and the arrival of succours from abroad. How often have the French been compelled to retreat from Germany, notwithstanding a triumphant outset, and after many victories, by unforeseen changes in the politics of nations; by the successful resistance of a single fortress, and by the mere untowardness of winds and rains! Prussia may indeed be conquered, but it must be, necessarily, a tedious and destructive warfare that accomplishes her ruin. Yet the most rapid and unlimited success of the enemy can make no permanent impression on her territory. A peace must come at last, in which the French will find it necessary to relinquish the Prussian patrimony, and be satisfied, as the price of their success, with some trivial cessions in Westphalia, and the right of protection over the Hessian and Saxon principalities.

The Prussians opened the war by publishing a declaration in which, according to custom, all the usurpations of France, from a period as far back as the peace of Amiens, were carefully enumerated. As most of these events were prior to treaties between the two powers, they could throw no light on the causes of the present war. In examining the conduct of nations, we must always consider their power. If a state takes from its neighbour what it is able to keep in spite of opposition or resistance, it acts in this respect according to the general and usual practice of states. This conduct may violate the prin-

ciples of justice or veracity, but since all nations continually afford examples of this conduct, to concentrate all our anathemas, and dart them against a single state, is so far unjust, that it tacitly implies in one state a guilt enormous, and peculiar to itself; and confines our punishments to one offender, when all the bystanders, and the judge himself are equally guilty. When the Prussians and English revile the French for their encroachments in Italy, Switzerland, and Holland, they are so far inconsistent and absurd, as their own conduct is equally culpable. The English in India, the Prussians, Austrians, and Russians in Poland, and the French in Italy, have equally availed themselves of their superior power to aggrandize themselves, without regard to the claims and inclinations of others, or of the subject of their tyranny. To this species of injustice we must submit as to a physical necessity, knowing, as we do, that nations are always the same in the same situation, and that the sufferer who now complains would have been the tyrant, if fate had allotted to him the superiority enojyed by his oppressor. But though the propensity of nations to aggrandize themselves by all the means in their power, is no subject of wonder or of peculiar malediction, we may justly be surprised, and our commendations are extorted, when a nation is found to give up voluntarily any advantage; when it forbears to reap all the fruits naturally growing out of its successes; when it sets any limits, but those dictated by fear or by weakness, to its usurpations and encroachments on its neighbours. In seizing all within our reach, we act like the rest of the world, but in abstaining from the prey, when none can force us to abstain, we display an equity and moderation singular and meritorious. If we apply this impartial standard to the conduct of the French emperor, towards Austria, Tuscany, the Pope, and the German princes, shall we not be obliged to allow the merit of some moderation and forbearance. Has he retained all that was in his power? did he make the most profitable use of his victories? his rivals and enemies unquestionably want only an opportunity to imitate him in his victories and conquests, and it is by no means certain that they would vie with him in equity and moderation. Prussia, least of all the states of Europe, has any claims to applause on this score. The petty marquis of Brandenburg has raised himself, by a long series of Prussian, Polish, Silesian, Westphalian, and Franconian usurpations, to the exalted height which he had reached in the year 1806. If he is now obliged to descend from this height, to his original insignificance, it will be by means of the same policy and violence in France, which he himself had previously exerted to raise himself from it.

The Prussian declaration, after a long catalogue of offences, comes at length to the events subsequent to the peace of Presburg, and which were the gradually accumulated, and the true causes of the war. The annihilation of the German empire, as it disappointed the long cherished hope of Prussia to acquire the imperial dignity, was the deepest wound, and is accordingly insisted on with most earnestness. The encroachments made on the territory of the prince of Nassau; the annexation of three abbies to the principality of Cleves; and of the town of Wesel to the French empire, though Prussia had merely sti-

pulated for the union of the latter with Cleves*; the seizure of Aquilea and Gradisca, contrary to the peace with Austria, and of Ragusa, though a tributary dependence of the Turkish empire, contrary to the mutual guarantee of all the rights of the Turks; the solicitations of the French, addressed to the prince of Hesse Cassel, to join the league of the Rhine; the treachery of France in persuading Prussia to incorporate Hanover absolutely with her territories, and to seize on Swedish Pomerania, while, in secret negociations with England and Russia, she offered to restore Hanover to the former, and to answer for the safety of the Swedish province to the latter, and, finally, the continuance in Germany of the augmentation of the French troops: these are the topics of complaint, and the causes of the war as alleged by Prussia.

The French, on the other hand, find no great difficulty in declaring that they entertain no hostile views with regard to Prussia; that their troops are maintained in Germany merely to enforce the new arrangements on the Rhine, freely adopted by the members of the league, and only in danger of interruption and disturbance from the illegal and hostile measures of Prussia, who thought proper to take umbrage at conduct, injurious indeed to her ambition, but perfectly consistent with the rights and duties of those concerned. They affect to consider the war as the impulse of blind and furious passions in a party or faction at the Prussian court, actuated by a causeless hatred of France, and an insane thirst for conquest and plunder, and headed by the queen. They represent the king as neutral, or rather pacific in his inclinations, and as being driven into war by importunity and clamour, rather than by reasoning or his own convictions.

However this be, the two princes took the field, determined to superintend all military operations with their own eyes. The Prussian army was collected, and prepared for action at the beginning of October.

* This was certainly a frivolous distinction. Wesel was as subservient to the views of France, as a part of the dutchy of Cleves and Burg, ceded by Prussia to Murat, brother-in-law of Bonaparte, as if it were entirely and constitutionally French. The fate of the three abbies was the immediate concern of the new league, which had sanctioned the annexation. The Prussian manifesto was compiled by the well known Gentz, who has been inveighing for many years against the encroachments of France in Germany, and palliating or justifying those of Prussia. The manifesto is a very feeble and sophistical performance altogether.

CHAP. VIII.

AN extensive country lies between the Prussian territory, and those districts on the eastern branches of the Rhine, which belong to the new league. It is traversed by the upper branches of the two great rivers, the Elbe and the Weser, and is very unequally divided between a great number of Saxon and Hessian princes. At the head of the former is the elector of Saxony, whose territory is more than equal to all the rest in extent, and is extremely rich and populous. Being almost enclosed by the Prussian dominions, he is exposed to insult and invasion on that side, and his military force being scarcely one-tenth, in number, of the Prussian army, and therefore unable to defend its own ground, is compelled to join the Prussians. Accordingly, twenty thousand of the elector's troops co-operated, on this occasion, with the Prussians, who hastened to possess themselves of all the fortresses and strong posts in the country bordering on the territories of the league. Through these last the French were expected to approach.

The French emperor arrived at Bamburg, a city situated near the border, on the 6th of October, and, being determined to leave as little to fortune as possible, mustered round him upwards of two hundred thousand men, and all his veteran generals. Among the latter were Bernadotte, Davoust, Soult, Lasnes, Augereau, and Ney.

The Prussian army were collected, at the same time, at Naumburg, about a hundred miles distant in the north. The numbers brought into the field were certainly much inferior to the expectations which the world had formed, and lead us to suspect some material error in the common statements which are given on this subject. The whole, diligently collected from all parts of the kingdom, and including twenty thousand Saxons, fell short of a hundred and twenty thousand men. Superiority of numbers, therefore, on the side of the French, was sufficient to decide the fray, and thus afforded, at the opening of the scene, a fatal prognostic of the catastrophe. The confidence of the Prussians was much abated when they were informed of the mighty army collected by France, on so short a warning, and so far from home. The Prussians had not been engaged in a war, of any importance, for upwards of thirty years. The duke of Brunswick had acquired great military fame in his youth, but he had passed many years of peaceful inactivity before he was called into action by the events of the French revolution, and his disastrous expedition to France threw a cloud over his fame which no time could dispel. He was now, at an advanced age, once more summoned to lead an inferior and inexperienced army against the innumerable bands of Bonaparte, flushed with a long series of victories, and led on by youth, genius, and good fortune. The prince of Hohenlohe, Ruchel, and Kalcreuth were the principal commanders under the duke of Brunswick.

It would be a vain attempt to pursue the steps of the adverse armies, while advancing towards each other; or to mark the separation and re-union of the different bodies into which they were sometimes divided. The narratives hitherto published are full of contradiction and confusion. Whether the Prussians were induced to hazard a general battle by expectations that the enemy were inferior or no more than equal in number to themselves, and that their mistake was detected too late to allow them to change their measures, we cannot decide. Certain it is, that their whole force was exerted in this field, and the fate of the kingdom committed to a single battle.

Those who endeavour to explain the event, after it happened, give us a long catalogue of errors committed by the Prussians, in neglecting the difficult passes of the Thuringian hills, which the French had to pass on leaving Bamburg; and neglecting, in like manner, to fortify the strong posts upon the Saahl, a river which lay on their left and before them, and in general making very inadequate provision for the maintenance of the troops, and for procuring intelligence of the designs and movements of the French. The obvious circumstance, however, which explains the event, is the inequality of numbers between the contending armies. The whole force of the French was brought into the neighbourhood of Jena, after a somewhat circuitous route from the left, and eight days after they began their march from Bamburg. Upwards of twelve thousand of the Prussian troops, designed for this scene of action, were called from West Prussia, and had scarcely reached Saxony on this day. An equal number were posted in Franconia, on the Meyn. These, with some other small detachments, reduced the force of the Prussians at Jena to little more than eighty thousand men. The number of their army, therefore, was more than double, and was undoubtedly sufficient to decide the fray, had there been an absolute equality in all other respects.

The march of the French was directed to turn the left of the Prussians. As the river Saahl ran, on this side, from south to north, the French advanced on the east side of that river, the Prussians being posted on the other side. Very slight opposition was made by the Prussians, and before the thirteenth of October, the French had accomplished their design. By celerity on one side, and inexplicable inattention and remissness on the other, the Prussian main army was cut off from Saxony. French detachments overran that fine country, without opposition, while the main body hastened to improve its advantages by a general attack on the Prussians. The latter, seeing themselves turned, hastily recalled these divisions which had been dispatched towards Wurtzburg and Frankfort, and, on the thirteenth of October, formed themselves in order of battle, between Capellsdorf and Awerstadt, a very few miles distant from the spot which they occupied at the opening of the war. They had lost all their magazines, and their chief aim was to open a way for a retreat into their own territory, and especially to Magdeburg, which lay about eighty miles from their present station.

The battle began on the fourteenth, early in the morning, and terminated, in the afternoon, in the total defeat of the Prussians. Their

loss has been vaguely estimated at thirty or forty thousand men killed, wounded, or prisoners, among which were all their best generals. Their artillery and magazines fell into the hands of the victors. Certain it is, that the Prussian army was reduced by this battle, to a few detached bodies of flying troops, too small and too much disconnected to reunite or make head against the conquerors, who remained entire, and exerted all their diligence to overtake and destroy them.

The Prussians, having tried the fortune of the field, and found it adverse, had no other alternative than to gain the fortified towns, and defend themselves behind their bulwarks as long as possible. The position of the conquerors rendered this alternative extremely difficult, and some fatal despondency in the officers and soldiers, who were fortunate enough to reach the fortresses, or some deplorable neglect in providing these places with the adequate means of defence, rendered their walls of no advantage. The day after the battle, marshal Mollendorf, with twelve or sixteen thousand men, took refuge in Erfurt, fifteen miles from the field of battle, but immediately surrendered to the French. A body of French, advancing into Saxony, took possession of Leipsig on the eighteenth, and the Prussian reserve, stationed at Halle, were attacked, overpowered, and dispersed on that day. Thus, in three weeks from the opening of the campaign, all direct opposition on the side of the Prussians had ceased. Their few remaining troops were busily employed in seeking their safety in flight. They were vigorously pursued on all hands, and, if they sometimes made a stand, it was to prevent themselves from being utterly destroyed. The principal body, which was endeavouring to reach Magdeburg, was, in this manner, so hotly pursued by superior numbers, that it was frequently under a necessity of profiting by a favourable position in its route to endeavour to check the pursuers. All these attempts were accompanied only with fresh loss and defeat, and the troops that sheltered themselves in Magdeburg were closely blockaded. Meanwhile, the French spread themselves, without encountering the smallest opposition, over all the patrimonial territory of Brandenburg, Berlin, the capital, being entered on the twenty-fourth of October. This city is upwards of two hundred miles, in a direct line, from Bamburg, from which their army had set out only eighteen days before.

Spandau and Magdeburg were the fortresses of most consequence in this quarter; but these are celebrated for their strength. All the refinements of fortification had been exhibited in these places, as they are the eyes of the Prussian monarchy. The former is a citadel, about three miles from Berlin, situated in the midst of water, and garrisoned, on this occasion, with twelve hundred men, and most amply supplied with ammunition and provisions. It was surrounded on the twenty-fourth, and capitulated before a gun was fired against it.

Though the French brought so great a force to this war on the side of Bamburg, armies were at the same time collected on the side of Westphalia, under the king of Holland and marshal Mortier. The Prussians had no forces to spare to make head against this triple attack: of consequence, the French entered the Prussian territory on

that side without opposition, and took quiet possession of Hanover and Brunswick, as early as the twentieth of October.

Mortier advanced upon the territory of the prince of Hesse Cassel. This prince had resisted all the insinuations employed to induce him to join the Rhenish confederacy; had allowed a free passage to the Prussian troops; and, though the decision at Jena had occurred too soon to allow him openly to take a part, it is evident that all his armaments were intended to have aided the Prussians, had their first efforts been crowned with success.

The position of his territory, and his family connections with the king of Prussia, naturally placed him under the influence of the latter power, and he now participated in its ruin. A remnant of the Prussian army, under the duke of Weimar and general Blucher, continued their flight to the north; but they were finally attacked at Lubeck, on the Baltic. This city had old walls, which the Prussians endeavoured, on this occasion, to defend. The defence was ineffectual, and here the last remains of the Prussian army were forced to capitulate on the seventh of November. The previous surrender of the strong fortresses of Custrin and Stettin on the Oder, and of Magdeburg, after a short bombardment, completed the conquest of all the north of Germany, westward of the Oder. All these territories, including the domains of the Mecklenburg, Brunswick, and Saxon princes, with Hanover, Brandenburg, a part of Pomerania, and the Hanse towns, were now in full possession of the French, and the fate of the property and people were subjected to their mercy.

It was certainly fortunate for these countries that the war had not been protracted by a long series of marches, battles, and sieges. If the final event were to be favourable to the invaders, the sooner this event arrived, the less calamitous would it prove. A tedious and wide-spread contention in the field would have occasioned infinite havock among farms and villages, while long sieges would have ended in the conflagration and plunder of the cities, and overwhelmed their inhabitants with poverty, epidemical diseases, famine, and despair. Some of these evils had already indeed been felt in the pursuit of so many bodies of the Prussians, and the occasional efforts they made to check their pursuers, especially at Lubeck, which, being taken by storm, was abandoned to plunder. But these evils were trivial when compared with the general destruction which had followed, if the war had been spun out for many seasons, or even for many months, or if the five great fortresses of Erfurt, Spandau, Stettin, Custrin, and Magdeburg had made a resistance in any degree proportioned to their strength or their garrisons.

Indiscriminate plunder and massacre, committed by soldiers, are no longer allowed in the operations of modern warfare. Their tendency is not more evident to destroy and impoverish the country, and thus lessen the permanent value of the prize obtained, than to enervate and ruin the conquerors themselves by luxury and licence. The resources of the conquerors are lessened instead of being renewed by this system. Accordingly, the prevailing mode is to levy contributions, in money, clothing, and provisions, on the conquered people, in propor-

tions not utterly inconsistent with their means of paying them. The actual collection is left in some degree to the equity and moderation of the native magistrates, the conquerors being only solicitous about the whole amount. The French did not fail to employ their present power in this way, and heavy contributions were laid upon all the countries now under their sway. As these regions were full of riches and people, having enjoyed so long a peace, and a flourishing commerce, foreign and domestic, for so many years, we may easily imagine the spoil gathered in this way must have been immense. By this means an ample subsistence was provided for the numerous armies of invaders, and the revenue of France entirely disburthened of the pay and maintenance of more than two hundred thousand men.

The public property, in military stores, which the Prussian monarchs had been collecting for forty years, may be supposed to be enormous. Its arsenals and magazines, though not properly distributed or seasonably employed, overflowed with military riches. These they had no time to carry beyond the Oder, and, as none of them was consumed in defending the strong places in which they were deposited, no calculation can reach the probable amount of these accumulated treasures.

It was not to be expected that, in reaping this harvest of victory, the French should make any distinction between Prussia and her allies. Though Saxony had no power to remain neutral, and though the French emperor affected to treat the Saxon prisoners with more clemency and kindness than the Prussian, and early declared his willingness to admit their prince into the new confederacy, he did not remit the usual claims of a conqueror to heavy contributions from the Saxon states. It was not till the eleventh of December, that a treaty was signed, by which the French consented to discontinue the levy of military contributions; and to admit the elector of Saxony, under the new title of king, into the confederacy of the Rhine, though the Saxon king engages, by this compact, to augment the military force of the league with twenty thousand men; but, considering his recent losses, his present supply is limited to six thousand men. The province or circle of Cathus is annexed to his kingdom, and he agrees to transfer a portion of his territory in Thuringia, equal in value to Cathus, to any one that the French emperor shall name. This treaty contains a remarkable article: Saxony was the birth-place of Luther, the seed plot of his doctrine, and the first to abolish and prohibit the exercise of the catholic religion. In the eighteenth century, the elector of Saxony, in order to insure his accession to the throne of Poland, embraced the Romish faith. This change, however, effected no revolution among his subjects. The Saxon states could only be prevailed upon to relax the ancient restrictions in favour of their prince and his family. The French emperor, on this occasion, became the champion of toleration and the catholic faith; and he requires that the Lutherans and catholics shall be placed exactly on the same footing, and admitted to the same religious and political privileges throughout the Saxon kingdom. If the prince were zealous in his faith, and ambitious of royalty, he might console himself that, among all the calamities of this conquest, some advantages were to be ascribed to it.

The princes of Hesse Cassel, Brunswick, and Mecklenburg fell under the displeasure of the conqueror; the first by resisting his invitations to embrace the league of the Rhine, and by his ancient and intimate connections with Great Britain; the second by waging a successful war against France in 1762, by leading the army which, thirty years after, was destined to rescue the Bourbon race from impending destruction, and by urging the present war; and the third by befriending the operations of the Russian army in a former year. The estates of these princes were pillaged without mercy, and the firmest resolutions expressed of excluding them for ever from their ancient possessions.

As the north of Germany had been, of late years, the theatre of a very flourishing trade with Great Britain, and as the cities were filled with English commodities, the conqueror easily discovered a plan for greatly augmenting the heap of his plunder, under a pretext that sheltered him from the charge of undisguised robbery, and at the same time tended to annoy and distress Great Britain. The English, while carrying on a naval war, were accustomed to seize the persons and property of private and unarmed individuals belonging to a hostile nation, when found upon the sea. They also assumed the right of intercepting all commerce carried on, in certain cases, even in neutral vessels, with a hostile port. The former rule was common to all maritime nations, and the difference, in this respect, between a war by land and by sea, though evidently inconsistent and unreasonable, was yet, in practice, universally admitted. The French emperor, however, thought proper, on this occasion, to represent it as a practice new and peculiar to the English; as a revival of the barbarism of antiquity, and as an outrage on humanity, which justified the utmost violence of retaliation in all other states. He therefore decreed that, till England should acknowledge the rights of war to be the same at sea as on land, and that these rights cannot be extended to private property or private persons, in any situation, the persons and property of Englishmen, wherever found, in the countries conquered by the French or their allies, should be treated as the English treat their enemies at sea; that the former should be made prisoners of war, and the latter considered as lawful prize. In revenge for the imaginary extension of the system of blockade by the English, he declared the British empire to be itself in a state of blockade. As a consequence of this, all commerce and correspondence with them is prohibited, and even the intercourse of letters is forbidden.

It is easy to see the difficulties that would encounter the execution of this decree, if the terms of it were rigidly adhered to, and no property seized but what was clearly and equitably proved to be English. A liberal use was therefore made of violence and terror to extort the necessary proofs of property; but still the resources of concealment and evasion were so numerous, and an absolute transfer from foreigners to natives was so easy, that this decree would never have answered the purpose, either of annoying the English by cutting off their trade, or of profiting the French by plunder. In most cases, therefore, the summary expedient was resorted to of seizing all English manufac-

tures, wherever they could be found, without regard to the nice and intricate question of ownership.

It would be worthy of curiosity, but is impossible to ascertain the extent to which this confiscation was carried; what quantity of English commodities existed at this time in northern Germany; how far a system of concealment or disguise was practicable; and with what degree of rigour the decree was executed, are all necessary to be known before we can judge of the misery to which the people were exposed by such a system of plunder. In some countries it would amount to a total subversion of property, and the unlimited pillage of all ranks and professions. The prohibition of all future intercourse, commercial and epistolary, between these countries and the British dominions, under the fantastic notion of a general blockade, must have always been futile and nugatory; indeed it does not appear that the latter system was pursued with much spirit, nor are we informed that the persons of the English were in all cases arrested.

Some incidents which occurred at Berlin, after the arrival of the French, throw some light upon the manners of the age. The sword and scarf worn by the great Frederick, in the war of seven years, were still preserved, at Potsdam, with some sort of religious veneration. The military virtues of this king are not likely to lose their estimation in a military age like this, and among a nation so given to war as the French. These trophies were sought out, with great zeal, by the French emperor; were treated with great reverence, and ordered to be transported to Paris, and deposited, with utmost solemnity, in the Church of the Invalids. All this was accordingly done, with the pomp of processions, orations, and religious ceremonies, which formerly accompanied the translation of the reliques of saints and martyrs. The successes of Frederick were chiefly displayed against the Austrians and Russians, and this circumstance, added to his literary devotion to the French nation, have always made him a favourite hero with them, and modern history has not furnished so illustrious an example of skill and experience in war. The present success of the French in northern Germany is a source of peculiar exultation and triumph, since it was so lately the theatre of their utmost humiliation and disgrace. The recollection of those times when the whole power of the French monarchy, seconded by Austria and Russia, was exerted for three or four campaigns without making any lasting impression even on Westphalia, shed uncommon glories on the present period, when that power, exerted alone, effected the conquest of the whole empire westward of the Oder in a single month. The contrast is, in the highest degree, flattering to the vanity of Bonaparte, and advances him much more in the veneration of his soldiers than much more arduous atchievements which should not suggest the same comparison.

CHAP. IX.

THESE wonderful and rapid successes by no means satisfied the French. While some detachments were engaged in pursuing the fugitives in the north, and others were employed in besieging or garrisoning the fortified places in Hanover and Brandenburg, a large part of the army, with the emperor at their head, prepared to attack the remaining Prussian territories eastward of the Oder. These territories lay chiefly between the Memel and the Oder, and consisted of Prussia proper, of the greater part of Pomerania, of the wealthy province of Silesia, and of the districts formerly belonging to the kingdom, or *republic*, as it was fantastically called, of Poland. The king of Prussia had effected his escape into this remote quarter of his empire: and was employed in collecting and recruiting the poor remains of his discomfited and panic-struck army, in strengthening the places which seemed best qualified to check the enemy, and in renewing his alliances with Sweden, England, and Russia.

A distant but impartial observer will see no reason, in the previous incidents of this war, for suspecting the Prussian officers and soldiers of having yielded, either through cowardice or disaffection to the cause in which they were engaged, undue advantages to the enemy in the field, but the precipitate surrender of so many strong fortresses may naturally give rise to some suspicion. Though fortresses are seldom defended without some distant hope of relief, and though the complete success of the French in the field could afford the Prussian garrisons of Magdeburg, Custrin, Erfurth, Spandau, Stettin, and Hameln no prospect of ultimate safety; and though their resistance would merely involve their own destruction and that of the towns they defended, while a speedy submission would be recompensed by rewards and immunities; yet soldiers are usually under the influence of no such humane or dispassionate views. They commonly submit only to necessity, and their honour is seldom satisfied but with the sacrifice of all the life and property entrusted to them*. The conduct of the Prus-

* When the Austrians threatened a general of the great Frederick, who held Breslaw against them, with bombarding that city, he answered that his master had entrusted him with the care, not of the houses, but the fortifications. The houses might be burnt, and the citizens starved or slaughtered: but that was their concern, not his. In this war there had hitherto occurred no instance of this kind. Magdeburg was the only place that put the enemy to the trouble of bringing a battering train before it: after a few bombs were fired, and a few houses were burned, the importunity of the citizens prevailed on the garrison to surrender. Relief or effectual resistance was in this case certainly hopeless. Common sense and humanity, therefore, enjoined them to do thus. but military maxims teach a different lesson; and had they held out till the city was laid in ashes; till forty thousand innocent people had perished with wounds, famine, and terror; till the neighbouring country had become a smoking desert; and till, all defences being at length beaten down, a general storm had terminated in the massacre of all the soldiers and

sian commanders, therefore, on this occasion, cannot be easily explained, without supposing them to want either the usual constancy of soldiers, or a cordial attachment to the service of their sovereign. In suspecting them of disaffection rather than of cowardice on one hand, or humanity on the other, we are somewhat justified by the sentiments of the king of Prussia himself. By several proclamations, published at this time, he declares this suspicion, and makes several regulations which implies the previous decay of discipline and loyalty among the troops, in a degree of which foreign nations had been little aware.

In his present desperate situation, the king was anxious to preserve his remaining territories by a peace. Soon after the decisive battle, he sent an ambassador to the French emperor, supplicating for an armistice, and offering liberal concessions; but an armistice could be hardly expected from a victorious leader, whose future successes nothing but his own inactivity could impede, and whose enemy only wanted the leisure of an armistice to rally his dismayed forces, and prepare the means of future resistance. At length, when the French had carried their arms to the banks of the Oder, they were willing to grant an armistice, provided the Prussians would admit, among its conditions, the surrender of certain fortresses and territories in Silesia, and beyond the Oder, and thus save them the trouble of attacking them. On these conditions peace would be negociated, but among the terms of this peace, previously declared, were the interdiction of the Russians from all ingress to the Prussian territories, the restoration of the conquered colonies by Great Britain, and certain concessions to Turkey to be made by the emperor Alexander. It is probable that these terms were offered merely in sport, and as a new experiment upon the folly and pusillanimity of the vanquished; yet, strange to say, the Prussian agents at Berlin signed this opprobrious armistice, and the king was only dissuaded by the Russians from confirming it, under flattering promises of succour.

The course of the Oder, for a length of a hundred and forty miles, divided the French conquests from the Prussian territory. The province of Silesia lies upon the upper branches of that river, and is divided by lofty hills from Saxony and Brandenburg. To cross the Oder, and proceed westward into Poland, on one side, and to ascend that river and penetrate into Silesia, on the other, were the undertakings now meditated by the French.

Silesia being so long an object of contention between Prussia and Austria, and being still, in some sort, a frontier between them, was covered with very strong fortresses.

The Prussians endeavoured to avail themselves of past misfortunes, by providing these places with military stores and garrisons, and with commanders of tried fidelity. That species of defensive war, which a just calculation of their relative strength would, at the begin-

townsmen that remained, the commander would have stalked forth from the ruins with conscious majesty. Even his enemies would have revered him for a hero, and all mankind would have conspired to extol his magnanimity.

ning, have recommended to the Prussians, they were now, through necessity, obliged to adopt. By this system the French were at once warned and permitted to turn their principal force against east Prussia, while an inconsiderable force, consisting chiefly of Wirtemburgers and Bavarians, under Jerome Bonaparte, were deemed sufficient for the conquest of Silesia.

The principal strong holds on the Oder, and such as might long have arrested the progress of the French, were Frankfort, Custrin, and Stettin. The two first are only twenty miles from each other, while the interval between the two last is about sixty miles. Frankfort and Stettin are on the western, and Custrin on the eastern bank of the Oder, and were all of them adapted to resist an obstinate siege. The remains of the conquered army were sufficiently numerous, if strongly posted in these towns, to have arrested the progress of the enemy, till the Prussians had time to recover from their first dismay, and to have concerted offensive operations with their allies. All these places, however, yielded without a single struggle to the French, before the end of the first month of this war, and no obstacle presented itself to prevent the march of the French into the heart of Poland. On the left, between the Oder and the Vistula, lay a maritime district, along the coast of the Baltic. The principal cities on this coast were Colburg and Dantzic, which were the keys of the interior country, the great marts of its foreign trade, and affording convenient access to any succours which Sweden, Russia, or England might think proper to furnish. It should seem desirable, therefore, to acquire these places previous to any military operations in the inland country; but whether the French emperor flattered himself that these places would surrender to small detachments, as other strong holds had done, or that the destruction of the remainder of the Prussian army in the field would allow him full leisure to attend to these, and make their resistance more feeble and desperate, or whether he was dazzled by the prospect of a speedy meeting with the Russians on their own borders, he determined to proceed with his main army towards the ancient Polish capital.

The French now entered on a new scene. When they crossed the Oder, they found a people friendly to their cause, and willing not only to co-operate with them, by promoting their subsistence, but even by seconding their military efforts. The wealth and substance of the people were not drawn from them by compulsory and unpaid for contributions; but they were treated, in some respects, with the deference and kindness due to friends and allies.

It will be necessary to explain briefly the views with which the invaders entered Poland, and the circumstances which produced the mutual and pacific relation which subsisted between the people of these districts and their visitants.

Poland, till the middle of the eighteenth century, enjoyed the rank of an independent state. In extent of territory, in excellence of climate, in fertility of soil, it was not inferior to the German empire, to France, or to Spain, and, had its population and political strength borne any proportion to its natural advantages, it would have formed the most potent state in Europe. It was, however, no more than a collection of

petty principalities, paying an imperfect obedience to a common head, who was elected for life, and who had scarcely any power over the military or pecuniary resources of the nation. They resembled the Germans in being divided into numerous states; but the territorial inequality of these states was much less. There was no one of them so powerful as to drag the rest into the support of a common cause; the several chieftains or lords were far below the Germans in political refinement; their domains were worse cultivated and peopled, in proportion to their extent; and military arts were much less known among them. Hence they were prone to jealousy, disunion, and rebellion; the want of union rendered their separate strength of no avail to their common safety; and their powerful and politic neighbours found them an easy prey to the seductive arts of bribery, or to military violence.

Poland was placed in the midst of the three great rivals, Prussia, Russia, and Austria. These powers were irresistible whenever they pleased to exert their strength against Poland, and, after various revolutions, they finally divided the whole country among them. Each one found ample pretexts, in the chaos of ancient history, and in the complexity of all political reasonings on the rights and interests of nations, to palliate his usurpation; but no one conversant with mankind can for a moment be mistaken as to the genuine nature of this partition. All of them had the usual lust of dominion, and they made Poland their prey, merely because it was in their power to make it so. The rights, interests, or inclinations of the Poles were no objects of consideration. Their leave was not asked, and no option was granted to them.

This revolution had different effects on the actual condition of the Poles. Everywhere the ancient rights of the nobility were partly superseded and abolished, and the condition of the great bulk of the people was so far improved as the turbulence and anarchy of the ancient government were extinguished. With regard to any direct influence on manners, on the useful arts, and on the relations between different classes of society, on population and culture, the genius of the new government was favourable in all these cases; but, as the maxims of the Prussian government were more wise and salutary than those of either Austria or Russia, those districts of Poland which were subjected to Prussia were more benefited by this revolution than the others. On the whole, we may venture to pronounce, that, however selfish and flagitious the motives of the three powers might be, the previous state of the Poles was such that the revolution was highly beneficial to them. It does not follow that these changes obtained their own approbation. The nobles could not be pleased with the loss of power; the people, miserable and enslaved as they were, could not be pleased with this attack upon their ancient habits and customary views, and some generations must probably pass away before the new order becomes familiar, and as difficult to violate as it was to establish

This revolution was by no means regarded with indifference by the other states of Europe. These states take an interest in each other's destiny, merely from the relation which it may bear to their own safety. Contiguous states are considered as eternal enemies, each one con-

stantly striving to aggrandize itself by all that it can, by fraud or violence, tear from others. Power is their measure of right, and the duties by which the members of each are bound to his own nation are thought, in practice, to supersede all rights or obligations subsisting between the members of different states, as partakers of the same humanity. The double purpose, therefore, of augmenting our power to injure, or lessen another's power to repel injury, makes us equally solicitous to prevent a neighbour state from increasing its territory. And thus, regard for their own safety has made the European states frequently appear the protectors of the weak against the strong, and states, feeble and powerless, have been screened from the attacks of potent and ambitious neighbours, merely by the provident jealousy of more remote states. The partition of Poland, however, created no effectual struggles against it, in France, Spain, and Britain, the only great powers who were not gainers by it, in consequence of the temporary prevalence of other and partial interests, but chiefly because Poland was previously a blank in the political map, and because, the prize being shared with tolerable equality among three, the general balance remained, in fact, essentially the same as before.

When the French revolution broke out, liberty became the idol of the nation. This term has been used in an infinite number of senses, but mankind are contented with the sameness of sound; and Kosciusko and other Poles, who fought in defence of the ancient Polish constitution, which united the extremes of servitude and anarchy, against the dominion of foreigners, were hailed as the martyrs of liberty, and, for a long time, a kind of sympathy prevailed between the French and the discontented Poles. This sympathy, however, produced no material consequences till the autumn of 1806, when the French emperor, placed, with a numerous and victorious army, as if by magic, on the Polish borders, and waging war with the two principal plunderers of Poland, recollected that the memory of their ancient independence might probably be dear to some of the existing generation. It was his business to avail himself of these impressions, and, therefore, he informed the Poles that he was coming among them, to make them, as he termed it, *once more a nation;* to destroy the foreign yoke which had so long oppressed them, and give them a prince and a constitution of their own. In order to secure this blessing, they must show themselves worthy of it, by not only forbearing to resist their great deliverer, and by avoiding an ignominious and cowardly neutrality, but by cheerfully devoting their lives and property to promote his success.

Though the French could not possibly intend any thing by these promises but to lessen the difficulties of their contest with Prussia and Russia, and though, should they close the war with success, Poland must necessarily be either subjected to a pure military despotism, to be exercised, in all its branches, by Frenchmen, or be surrendered to its former masters as the price of concessions from England, in Asia or America, still the Poles appear to have rejoiced in the arrival of the French, and to have cheerfully assisted them in all their operations. There may, however, have been more of policy than delusion in the conduct of the Poles. Their country was open, and without

defence against the invaders. It was their interest, by every artifice of adulation and submission, to obtain good treatment from a conqueror whom they could not resist, and, if he were kind enough to offer himself to them in the character of protector and deliverer, they were surely wise to accept him as such, and to counterfeit the necessary marks of joy and gratitude, for the sake of the immediate benefit.

We are not able to say what aid the Russians would have been able or willing to afford the Prussians, had the latter been able to maintain the war, for the remainder of the year, on the Elbe and Weser. A strong body of Russians, about sixty thousand strong, were collected, in the beginning of October, on the Memel, the river which forms the Russian frontier on the side of the Prussian states. On the twenty-second of that month, they began their march to Germany. Saxony was five hundred miles distant, and their utmost diligence could hardly have brought them to this scene of action in less than a month. This force, even if it had seasonably arrived, was very inconsiderable, and would not have raised the army which opposed the French, supposing it to have remained entire, to an equality even of numbers. It commenced its march eight days after the decisive battle of Jena, and had not advanced forty miles when tidings of that event reached them.

Their aid being thus rendered useless, they returned to their own territory, and the rapid approach of the French, even to their own borders, awakened them to the necessity of making much more formidable preparations. At the time in which they reckoned on encountering the French in Saxony, the enemy was at their own doors. They accordingly began to muster their armies in this quarter. Their detachments occupied several posts in the Prussian territory, and particularly Warsaw. This city, being unfortified and disaffected, was, however, abandoned on the approach of a superior body of the French, which entered it without opposition, on the twentieth of November.

The great force of the French enabled them, at this time, to carry on several contemporary projects. An army, under the nominal command of Jerome Bonaparte, entered Silesia, and was engaged in besieging the strong holds in that province. Panic and treachery no longer reigned in the Prussian garrisons, and these fortresses threatened to make a long and obstinate resistance. Hameln, in Hanover, did not capitulate before the twentieth of this month, and a detachment, under Mortier, marched against the districts which belonged to Sweden, on the Baltic. The main army, under Bonaparte, was collected in Poland. The French had not yet penetrated to the country on the Baltic, between the Oder and Vistula; their present efforts were directed against the Prussian territory lying between the last-mentioned river and the Memel, and which, with part of Austrian Poland, were interposed between the Russian possessions and the country now in the hands of the French.

The Vistula, which formed the western frontier of this territory, has a devious course of more than two hundred miles, from Warsaw to the sea. In this course, commerce has adorned its banks with a few considerable towns, Marienwerder, Graudentz, and Thorn, which, if carefully prepared for defence, had presented to the invaders

a much more formidable barrier than the Oder had proved. The French had been destined to encounter the double resistance of armies and fortresses. Their victories in the field merely gave them permission to attack the cities, and, so far were these victories from occasioning the total and instant conquest of the country, that they did not open the road that led into it, but merely gave them access to the foot of that fortified barrier which enclosed it.

Such were the appearances of things at the beginning of December; yet, in the course of ten days after, the French crossed the Vistula at Warsaw, without opposition, and formed an entrenched camp on the opposite bank. The Vistula here divides Warsaw from Praga, a kind of suburb, round which the French raised their bulwarks. About the same time, they took possession of Thorn, about seventy miles below Warsaw, whose fortifications, previously neglected, they set themselves with diligence to repair. Other detachments crossed the river at different points, and immediately began to fortify well-chosen posts.

Meanwhile, the Prussians were unable to bring an army into the field. The French, knowing that the Russians were approaching, proceeded with great wariness. At every new step, they took care to secure their footing, by fortifying the strong posts, and especially to secure their retreat, in case of adverse fortune, by strengthening the passes of the Vistula, on the western side.

About twenty miles below Warsaw, the Vistula is joined by the Bog, one of its principal branches. The latter river descends from the south-east, in a course nearly parallel to that of the Vistula, and is joined by the river Narew, a few miles above its junction with the Vistula. The road into the Prussian territory lies north from Praga, and, about twenty miles from that post, crosses the Bog, just below its confluence with the Narew. In pursuing this road, we have the Narew on the right, and before us a dreary plain, intersected with lakes and marshes, extending a hundred and fifty miles to Konigsberg, and the coasts of the Baltic. To reach the nearest part of the Russian frontier, we must traverse an equal distance, though through a less difficult country towards the north-east. The Russian armies approached by both these roads, while the French crossed the Bog, and carefully fortified the passage over that river, at the point of junction of the Bog and the Narew. The advanced guard of the Russians arrived, on the tenth of December, within thirty miles of the French posts on the Bog.

Military operations carried on in a country abounding in lakes and swamps, thinly peopled and poorly cultivated, in a cold climate, and in winter, may be well supposed to have many difficulties to encounter. The season had now far advanced; but whether the French proposed to close their warfare for the present, and, taking an impregnable station on the Vistula, renew their exhausted vigour by repose, and reinforce themselves by recruits from France, we are not accurately informed. The season being hitherto remarkably mild, it seems probable that they meant to push their forces as far as the Memel, and thus to complete, without delay, the conquest of the whole Prussian territory. The opposition of the Russians could only be overcome by a

general battle, and for this purpose the French hastily collected their forces in the neighbourhood of Warsaw, and sought the enemy.

The first efforts of the Russians to drive the French across the Vistula, were unsuccessful, probably on account of their inferior numbers. They found themselves obliged to retreat, and were followed, with the utmost expedition by the enemy. They made several stands, and at Pultusk, a body of Russians under Benigzen, succeeded in repulsing their pursuers, but these hourly augmenting in number, and threatening to cut off his rear, he was obliged to continue his retreat. Being about this time made commander in chief, he endeavoured to effect a junction with another body of the army under Buxhowden, who were likewise retreating. This junction was effected near the Sperding Sea, a considerable lake, about half way between Warsaw and Konigsberg. His principal view was to protect the latter city, even, if necessary, at the risk of a battle. He accordingly advanced towards the Vistula, having frequent skirmishes with detachments from the division under Bernadotte. At Mœhringen his advanced guard had to encounter the whole body under Bernadotte. Though the Russian vanguard was repulsed, the main body coming up on the next day, obliged Bernadotte to retire, and here Benigzen stationed his army.

A small body of Prussians and Russians, amounting to fourteen thousand men, had previously advanced along the coast, towards the lower Vistula, and compelled the French to raise the siege of Graudentz. They then repaired to the standard of Benigzen at Mœhringen.

It is impossible to state the number of the French at this time on the Vistula. It can hardly be supposed to be equal to the army with which they invaded Saxony, two months before. The utmost diligence had indeed been used to augment their forces by new levies in the conquered countries, and by fresh troops from France, but they were engaged in so many distant operations, and were so much exposed to the accidents of war and disease, that these sources of supply could not equal the waste.

The forces of their adversaries, posted in four different stations, near each other, are computed somewhat to exceed a hundred and forty thousand men. Eighty thousand were encamped together under Benigzen.

This formidable aspect compelled the French to concentrate all their forces in the neighbourhood of Warsaw. They were fully prepared to march on the last of January, and set out immediately towards Konigsberg. They purposed to cut off the Russians from that city, and oblige them to commit themselves to the hazard of a general battle. On the first of February, they advanced so far upon this road, and to the right of the Russians, that the latter were reduced to the necessity of fighting. They accordingly approached the enemy on the second of February. A contest ensued in which the French were victorious; the Russians, however, made good their retreat, though hotly pursued, and their rear guard continually fighting, for four successive nights, till, on the seventh, having gained the town of Prussian Eylau, they determined to await the enemy.

The ground occupied by the Russian army commanded the road along which the enemy must advance, as he approached from Landsberg. The woods, with which that country abounds, surrounded them at some distance, except on the left, which rested on the acclivity of a range of small woody hills.

The army was drawn up in three lines; the brigades which composed the second and third remained in columns; the cavalry were principally on the wings of the front line; several squadrons were posted in the rear of the centre of the first line.

The whole front was defended by several pieces of ordnance, and considerable reserves of artillery were attached to the second and third lines.

The right of the Russians extended to a village, through which a road passes to Konigsberg. The town of Prussian Eylau was nearly in the centre of the front, which, together with two small neighbouring villages, was occupied by Russian troops. The extent of the position, from right to left, was about a mile, and nearly the same in depth.

In front of the town of Eylau there is a ravine, which, though not of any great depth, was [illegible] of considerable advantage to the Russians, in consequence of the ascent from it to their position. This ravine extended from the town to the extreme point of the Russian line. Thus the whole of the Russian front was placed on a considerable elevation.

The Prussian general L'Estocq was expected hourly. He had been ordered to Osterode from the neighbourhood of Graudentz, when the army moved forward on the first to Jankova; and it was known that he had reached Passenheim, a few miles distant, the night before the action.

The enemy was chiefly posted on the hills and ravines opposite to the Russian left, having some corps on the plain, in front of the right. His strength could not, from the nature of his attacks, be accurately ascertained; but he was so stationed, as to receive considerable protection from the ravines and woods.

In the afternoon of the seventh, a strong corps pushed forward and actually gained possession of Prussian Eylau, which, by some mistake, had been abandoned by the Russians; it was, however, quickly reoccupied, but, after some severe fighting in the streets, finally abandoned to the enemy.

In consequence of this loss, it was found necessary to strengthen the centre of the Russian army, which was accordingly done by several regiments drawn from the right and left.

At day-break on the eighth, the action was recommenced by the French on the centre, and by a well-directed fire from their batteries and mortars, which did great execution in the Russian lines: several columns of infantry also pushed forward, which were vigorously charged, both by the Russian infantry and cavalry, and repulsed with enormous loss. About this period the French cavalry came on, and had actually pierced the front line, from whence it was driven with dreadful slaughter.

While these operations were going on in the centre, the adversary had

got round on the left, and began to shew himself on different points, but without opening his fire, and the several Russian corps, both of cavalry and infantry, were observed to retrograde towards the centre. About one o'clock he opened a well-directed fire from a battery on one of the hills in the rear of the left, which contributed much to the disorder that continued to prevail there, and in a short time he appeared in great strength on the crest of the hills, and in the woods on the left, while his cavalry again attempted to penetrate the centre, and again failed with considerable loss.

The enemy had already made some progress from the left towards the rear, when, about four o'clock, L'Estocq appeared advancing in that direction, and finally compelled the enemy, after sustaining a severe cannonade, to abandon the posts he had previously occupied.

Night put an end to the action, and Benigzen soon afterwards resolved to fall back on Konigsberg. In the course of the night he retreated by Mulhausen to Wittenburg, fifteen miles from the field of battle, and ten from Konigsberg.

The following day, the ninth, the enemy pushed his advanced posts to Mulhausen. The Russian army fell back close to Koningsberg, and took post near the Fridland Gate, under the ramparts of the town.

The loss on both sides in this dreadful battle must undoubtedly have been great, but from the situation of the French troops it is not probable that they suffered in equal proportion with the Russians.

This battle, taking into consideration the numbers engaged, the skill and fury with which it was contested on both sides, may be considered as the most severe that has been fought since the revolutionary war, and the first great check that Bonaparte has received since the commencement of his career, in 1796. The few prisoners that were taken on either side, prove the determination of both parties to conquer, or perish*.

The issue of this battle was so far favourable to the Russians, that the enemy afterwards made no immediate attack upon them, nor were they able to commence the siege of Konigsberg. The issue was so far favourable to the French, that the Russians were disabled from advancing upon them; on the contrary they were driven almost to their own frontiers, and allowed the French to prosecute unmolested the siege of the towns situated near the coast, and to prepare themselves, by new reinforcements, for a fresh attack in the spring. After this destructive contest, both parties consented to breathe. The French cantoned their main army along the little river Passarge, about half way between the Vistula and Memel. All the towns upon the former river were previously subdued, and preparations were made to besiege Dantzig and Colberg, strong places on the Baltic, west of the Vistula. The forces in Silesia, chiefly consisting of the auxiliaries of Bavaria and Wirtemburg, were engaged in besieging Breslaw, the capital,

* The above account of this battle is chiefly delivered in the words of an eye-witness, who appears to be impartial. From the adverse accounts of the French and Russians we can gather no distinct impressions. Both claim a decisive victory, and both slew myriads of their enemies with comparatively little loss to themselves.

which was bravely defended, while Mortier in the north was endeavouring to penetrate into Swedish Pomerania. Such was the state of this great contest, at the beginning of March, 1807, five months after its commencement.

The French had now nearly reached the eastern limit of the Prussian monarchy. In their progress they may be said to have been checked at this point, but they were not repulsed. In consequence of leaving the districts on their right and left unsubdued, they were disabled from exerting their full force in this quarter. They certainly by no means counted on the degree of opposition which they met with, and entertained more contemptuous opinions of the Russians than were justified by their experience.

With regard to the light in which the incidents of this war place the Russians, their resistance, if their numbers were, as they themselves report them, inferior to the assailants, is doubtless honourable to their military character. They made head, with some degree of success, against generals and soldiers who had conquered Austrians and Prussians, who had till lately been deemed the most perfect in their military system. Yet the event did not fully coincide with the splendid notions generally entertained of the military spirit and habits of that nation. These notions were certainly without any adequate foundation, since, except the momentary triumphs of Suwarrow, they had never been seriously engaged with any but the disorderly bands of Turks and Poles. Taking previous experience for our guide, we had no reason to expect the valour and conduct of the Russians to equal what they actually were in this arduous conflict.

There is, however, another point of view, in which the inference is by no means favourable to the Russians, or conformable to the opinions hitherto current respecting their power and resources. Russia has been commonly considered as the only rival to France, in the numbers and warlike habits of the people, in the energy of the government, and the magnitude of their military force. Official statements represent their army as exceeding, even in peace, half a million of men, and yet, in this arduous contest for existence, on the verge of their own territory, they appear to have been able to collect little more than a hundred thousand men. It is true, they were carrying on military operations, at the same time, in the defiles of Caucasus, and against the Turks, but these were upon a small scale, and were more than balanced by the collateral expeditions of their rival, his immense distance from home, and the numerous forces he was obliged to employ in securing the submission of the conquered countries. It is probable, on the whole, that the circumstances of this war, while it raises, or, at least, does not impair, the character of the Russian soldier, will greatly diminish the respect hitherto paid to the empire. Its weight in European affairs, the value set on its alliance, and the apprehension entertained of its enmity, will probably greatly decline.

During this contest, England was little more than an astonished spectator. The progress of the French was so rapid, that they were already on the Vistula, before their enemies had leisure to concert the suitable means of defence. The tardy operations of the English go-

vernment, and the uncertainty of the event of this war, prevented that power from contributing, in due season, an army of auxiliaries, but they appear to have furnished the Russians largely with money and military stores, and to have, in this way, contributed not a little to the successful resistance hitherto made.

Some observers indulged themselves in the hope that Austria would seize the favourable opportunity of falling on the French, while entangled in Poland, but that power appears very wisely to have listened to the voice of prudence, rather than of revenge. Austria dedicated all her attention to repairing the havock made by three disastrous wars; reforming and recruiting her armies and revenues, and waiting patiently for those turns of fortune which time will inevitably produce in the affairs of the French. Bonaparte is only immortal in his fame. He must die like other men, and the system whose unity and energy unquestionably depend upon his life, must perish with him. The influence of his talents and victories cannot rest upon his successor, and should a casual, but nice adjustment of interests among his senators and marshals prolong or secure the internal tranquillity of France, and a new dynasty of princes be actually and immoveably established, the head will no longer be the resolute, ambitious, and military one, which now actuates, guides, and controls the whole mighty machine. When the European states are deprived of all other refuge from despair, time alone will remain, and be sufficient to console them. The present tide must necessarily take a new direction at the death of Bonaparte, and that direction must be favourable to the enemies and competitors of France.

With regard to the war, which, previously to this period, had taken place, between Russia and England as allies against the Turks, that transaction is too recent, and its circumstances too imperfectly known to allow us distinctly to relate them at present. We shall pay due attention to that important event on a future occasion*.

* Bonaparte, while at Warsaw, admitted all the petty Saxon princes into the confederation of the Rhine. They had not contributed their forces to the Prussian army, and any other species of neutrality was, in their helpless situation, quite impossible. This consideration did not screen their subjects from heavy contributions, nor was their independence, if we may call it so, acknowledged, till the harvest had been entirely reaped. After a certain day, all military contribution was ordered to cease, and government returned into its customary channel.

CHAP. X.

WHILE Europe was thus laid waste by so many years of war, the United States of America remained in tranquillity. For more than twenty-two years, their internal peace had been disturbed by no commotions of any importance. Scarcely a life had been lost, or a cottage been demolished, in any intestine feud or insurrection. Though divided by accidental circumstances, existing at their first settlement, into several independent states, unequal to each other in size, population, and riches, dissimilar in habits, manners, and interests, they had never quarrelled with each other; though obliged to undergo a thorough revolution in their government, this dangerous and critical experiment was conducted and completed without the drawing of a sword; though harbouring in their bosom a nation of slaves, whose bondage was exasperated by many extraordinary circumstances of hardship and cruelty, who were drawn into union with each other, and set in irreconcileable opposition to their masters, by the indelible tokens of feature and colour, and who were roused by the example of successful revolt in a neighbouring country, yet they have hitherto avoided the calamity of a servile war. The evils of internal dissention and rebellion, instead of approaching nearer, are every day removed to a greater distance; the gulf which divides the master and the slave is becoming gradually narrower, and the ties which bind together the various members of the nation multiply and strengthen by time.

During this period, the American nation has increased in numbers and opulence, in a degree far beyond any known example. This increase, indeed, is the natural consequence of their local circumstances; but those who were unacquainted with any previous instance of increase on so large a scale, could not have imagined any thing resembling that which the present age has witnessed in America*. Twenty-two years

* That an infant colony, settling in a fertile and wholesome country, previously unoccupied, should increase from fifty to a hundred persons, in twenty years, could be easily conceived by one that lived in the seventeenth century; but that, in the same circumstances, five millions should increase, in the same time, to ten millions, is equally certain, yet the imagination of such an observer would be startled and rendered incredulous merely by the magnitude of the event. Though this rate of increase cannot be eternally progressive, yet, considering the condition of the people with regard to arts, manners, and government, and the actual extent of territory inland, it is not easy to set the due limits to it. We can discover no material obstacle to the continual extension of our settlements to the Pacific Ocean, nor can the increase be less than double in every twenty years, till the whole be occupied, in the proportion of at least a hundred to a square mile. Supposing, therefore, that there is only three millions of square miles of good land, connected with good climate, on both sides of the Missisippi, our numbers, in a hundred and ten years hence (little more than the life of some men), must be *three hundred millions*. Two hundred millions would people this space only in the small proportion of sixty-six to a square mile. Mighty and gigantic as this increase is, the reader must

of prosperity have increased the population of the country from three millions to six millions. Each individual of the present generation is richer, is surrounded with more luxuries and comforts, than his ancestor. The increase, therefore, in money, stock, public and private revenue, and trade, is augmented in more than a double proportion. The imagination might easily pursue the various consequences of this two-fold increase, in the additions made to the quantity of cultivated land; to the number and size of cities, towns, and villages; to the number, extent, and excellence of roads; and to the quantity of shipping. It might dwell on the improvements in the structure and economy of cities and buildings, and in dress and furniture; on the improvements in the art of navigation; on the extension of the sphere or theatre of trade and commerce; on the diffusion of literature and science; and on the increase of military strength. In contemplating these in their actual state, compared with their condition at the peace of 1783, the change would appear like the effect of magic; nor would a plain account of them obtain credit with a distant observer, till he had thoroughly reflected on the unavoidable effects of an increase in population, from three millions to six, in so short a period as twenty-two years, an increase connected, at the same time, with an evident increase of individual opulence, refinement, and luxury. These effects are magnificent, and strike the imagination with wonder, in proportion as the number doubled is small or great. A colony of five hundred can only enlarge itself, in twenty years, to a thousand; consequently, these twenty years are employed in furnishing additional food, clothing, and dwelling only to five hundred persons; but a nation of three millions, increasing in twenty years to six, these twenty years are obliged to furnish additional clothing, diet, and habitation for three millions of persons*.

The progress of the American nation was, in its infancy, liable to be impeded by many obstacles. The enterprize and rivalship of the three great maritime nations, France, Spain, and England, entered at once upon the vast theatre of North America. This theatre, however, was so wide, that entering, as they did, at different points, they were not likely to encounter or interfere with each other for many years. The time at length, however, arrived, when the progress of their colonies brought two of the rival nations into contact, and the field was cleared of one of the claimants only by a long and destructive war.

remember, that the increase that has actually taken place would equally have startled a follower of William Penn, or a member of the Plymouth company.

* It is evident that this source of curiosity and wonder will go on rapidly increasing, for at least another century. We have witnessed certain changes in the last twenty years; but those of the ensuing twenty must be double these in magnitude and importance; and the third period of twenty years will witness changes four times greater, in extent and consequence, than those of the first. The increase, indeed, will be much greater than this, because we have good reason to believe that individual opulence, luxury, and refinement will go on increasing in quite as great a proportion. While numbers are only doubled, the mass of general wealth will be more than doubled. The city whose population shall have doubled, will have more than doubled its former size, because the new house will be more spacious and magnificent than the ancient one, and the new created street will not only be twice as long as the old, but much superior in all other respects.

By the peace of 1763, the whole country westward of the Missisippi, except the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, was opened to the English settlements, and the war of the revolution, though it constrained the new states within the northern boundary of the River St. Lawrence, did not leave any subject of future contention between them and Great Britain, on their western border. The vast regions beyond the Missisippi were claimed by Spain; but it was not imagined that her claims would interfere or lead to hostilities with the new states, for a century to come.

The River Missisippi, which forms the western border of the American empire, flows along this border for upwards of a thousand miles. After descending within eighty miles of the sea, it passes into the territory of New Orleans, and at length, with a wide, deep, and navigable stream, it enters the Gulf of Mexico. That ridge of high land which runs from north-east to south-west, and divides the territory of the United States into two parts, gives rise, on its south-east side, to a great number of rivers, which fall into the Atlantic. These rivers form the medium of trade and intercourse between the inland districts and the harbours on the coast, and, by means of the latter, with foreign nations. On the north-west side of this highland ridge, are formed innumerable rivers, which, verging towards a common point, are at length chiefly collected into the great channel of the Ohio. Soon after, the Ohio itself joins the Missisippi, and the latter river becomes, in this manner, the only medium of communication between the vast and fertile regions situated on the Ohio and its branches, and the sea. The settlers in these regions can supply themselves with the products of the useful and elegant arts, only by carrying the surplus produce of their husbandry to the markets provided for them by the wants of Europe, the West Indies, and the eastern coast of North America. To these the most convenient access is afforded by the rivers which finally empty themselves, by the channel of the Missisippi, into the Gulf of Mexico. The navigation of this river, therefore, is necessary to the prosperity of all the western country, and it becomes of the utmost importance to the general welfare, that the whole course of the river should be the property of the same state. If the upper country be possessed by one nation, and the mouths of the river by another, the latter may shut up this outlet to the former, or may impose heavy and vexatious duties on all that pass.

Unfortunately the first European nation that explored the Missisippi were the French. They made settlements on the banks of this river, and on those which branched from it towards the north and west. Those settlements gave them the customary right to claim all the adjoining country as their own.

The war that ensued between Great Britain and France ended in the expulsion of the French from all the upper country; but, by some inexplicable fatality or oversight, they were allowed to retain possession of the mouths of the river. The lower districts were of little immediate value to a nation which had lost the upper country, but neither party seems to have foreseen that the cultivators of the upper regions would find the possession of the mouths of the river indispensible to their prosperity.

After the American states had finally subdued the aboriginal tribes, and recovered from the terrible shocks of the revolutionary war, their colonies crossed the mountains in vast numbers. The value of the Missisippi, as an outlet to the ocean, was immediately perceived. The necessary privilege of descending it, and of depositing the produce designed for exportation at New Orleans, a city situated near its mouth, was secured to America, and it was not till this privilege was withdrawn, that the necessity became apparent of acquiring the dominion of this river, in order to secure the cultivation and prosperity of the inland country.

As long as this province remained in the hands of Spain, there was little reason to dread the inconveniences that arise from the vicinity of a turbulent, warlike, and particularly of a growing nation. The Spanish empire is so extensive, the provinces which lie in the southern quarter of this empire obtain a share so much larger of the attention of their government, and the military genius of that government is so much decayed, that little apprehension has ever been entertained by the American states of the will or the power of Spain to injure her neighbours. Though this opinion has probably been adopted too hastily, and though the conduct of the Spaniards in obstructing the navigation of the river might have contributed to shake it, yet that hostile act excited, in the American nation, little more than surprise at its temerity and folly, and our apprehensions were not thoroughly awakened till the transfer of the province to France.

France having possessed both sides of the Missisippi previous to the peace of 1763, the eastern side having then been wrested from her by mere force of arms, and the cession then made being merely the dictate of necessity, and a reluctant submission to force, it was easily imagined that nothing was wanting but an opportunity to assert her ancient rights. France, in the course of the present war, had lost her most valuable colony in the west, and been deprived of all her ancient or recent acquisitions in the east. The appetite for foreign possessions, however, was rather heightened than abated by those misfortunes, and no human ingenuity could picture a country more favourable to all the views with which colonies are founded, and to those views which there were strong grounds for believing were entertained, at that time, by the government of France, than the fertile and well-watered regions of the Missisippi. To all these regions they had rights, sacred and imperishable in their own eyes, and such as they would not fail to exert, as soon as they had power to do so, without regard to the adverse or interfering claims of others. To the country west of the Missisippi their present claim was entire and unquestioned, and the American states had neither previous occupation, nor the terms of a treaty, on which to build a pretext for securing the country to themselves. However speedily the time might arrive when their population might expand itself beyond the Missisippi, and however dangerous such a neighbour might prove, a neighbour divided from them not by mountains, by which national interests are separated, but by a river which only blends and intangles these interests, they had always recognized the sovereignty of Spain beyond that limit, and could not

therefore impeach the validity of any sale, or transfer, that Spain should make of this territory to another.

Great therefore was the anxiety occasioned by this transfer, in all who reflected on the rapid progress of our population, and its speedy diffusion to the shores of the Pacific ocean, provided no untoward check or obstacle should rise up in its way. Those who had soothed their fancy by the images of glory and felicity, flowing from the occupation of one fifth of the fertile and habitable part of the globe, by a people of one blood, language, and policy, were dejected at the prospect of sudden and narrow bounds being put to their progress, by the intrusion of a race, whose habits, manners, and government were adverse and hostile, and whose vicinity would be an inexhaustible source of jealousy, dissention, and war. The supposed value of this territory to France made it hopeless that any pecuniary price would be thought equivalent to it, and that she would give up so splendid an inheritance for a few millions of dollars. Happily, however, the experiment was made, and she consented to sell to us all her claims in North America, for a sum which it was easy and convenient for us to pay.

The consent of France to this bargain cannot be easily explained. Whether the immediate pressure of necessity rendered the money of greater value than any distant advantage*; whether the predominance of the British naval power threatened to raise insuperable obstacles to the intercourse between France and the Missisippi; or whether they justly dreaded that their infant colony must inevitably be overwhelmed and stifled by the enormous growth of its western neighbours, or whether they conceived a future period, when a general peace should reign in Europe, to be more suitable to colonizing projects, and that their claims might always be resumed, when the resumption was convenient, certain it is that they resigned possession of all the posts and stations on the Missisippi to the American states. Whether this cession be sincere and absolute, or only hypocritical and temporary, is of small consequence. France may be expected to adhere to the treaty only while the breach of it is impossible or difficult, but meanwhile full possession is given, and the difficulty of regaining it is, by that circumstance, exceedingly increased, and constantly increasing. That national zeal and unanimity which is awakened by a sense of justice, will be exerted much more warmly and completely in defending what a voluntary sale and full consideration have made our own, than in wresting from another what is merely convenient for us to obtain.

The limits of the territory thus granted were necessarily uncertain. The course of the Missisippi is a line sufficiently distinct and well known, but this was its eastern border, for a considerable distance, and verging on the United States. Lower down, but above the thirty-first degree of latitude, the province has been supposed to extend eastward of the Missisippi, and far into the territory commonly though vaguely comprehended under the name of West Florida. West Florida being under the dominion of Spain, some bickering and contention might be

* Yet what were two or three millions of dollars to a government whose domestic revenue exceeded an hundred and forty millions a year. That sum, however, though little to the public, might be great as a *douceur pour la poche* of half a dozen public officers, whose *yea* or *nay* might be absolute in this case.

expected to arise between the two states, about territorial limits on this side, which exact geographical surveys and explicit treaties may be sufficient, however, to prevent. On the western side, however, as the theatre is much larger, and certainly less easily attainable, much difficulty must be expected to incur, and some indeed has arisen already. To explain the nature and extent of this uncertainty, it is necessary to take a brief view of that untamed and unexplored wilderness, which occupies the interior and most valuable part of North America.

From a base described by the northern tropic, the east and west shores of North America, which are here only about seven hundred miles apart, diverge as they ascend towards the north, till, at a small distance, the actual breadth of the space between them is upwards of three thousand miles. On the left or eastern side, the coast makes a sudden bend, for some distance, towards the east and south, and thus forms the northern boundary of the gulf of Mexico. The plane of the continent, above the thirtieth degree of latitude, and below the forty-fifth, is diversified by two ridges of mountains, one of which descends from the north-east, two or three hundred miles from the coast of the Atlantic ocean, while the other approaches from the north-west, nearly at the same distance from the western margin of the continent. Between these ridges lies an enormous valley, the sides of which are washed by a vast number of great rivers, which respectively tend toward the bottom of the valley, and are finally, for the most part, collected into the channel of the Missisippi, which, having a general course to the south, finally enters the gulf of Mexico.

The Spaniards made their first settlements in Mexico, but gradually extended themselves northward. Their settlements and consequent claims gradually ascended the western coast between the mountains and the sea to the fiftieth degree of latitude. At the same time they crept along the Mexican gulf, somewhat beyond the point where the coast turns towards the east. As some branches of the western mountains gradually subside into plains near that coast, the bounds, on that side, of the great inland valley of the Missisippi, become less clear and determinate. There is a series of rivers which fall into the Mexican gulf, in a course not widely different from that of the Missisippi, some of which must hereafter form the boundary between the Anglo-Americans, and American Spaniards.

When the French explored the Missisippi, they laid claim as usual to a wide territory on both sides of this river, to which they gave the name of Louisiana. As neither their surveys nor colonies extended, on the west, much beyond the banks of this river, nor those of the Spaniards beyond that mountainous barrier, which bounded the western, but unknown branches of the Missisippi, the true limits of Louisiana, on that side, could not be ascertained. That immense interval of meadows and forests, which extended near a thousand miles from the Missisippi to the easternmost settlements of Spain, must have been relinquished to that nation whose colonies should make the most rapid progress. Future occupation alone could give the right to a country, of which both parties were so ignorant, that neither could tell whether the surface were plain, mountain, or lake. While the French

were sovereigns of the province, their traders made long expeditions up the western branches of the Missisippi, and made the government acquainted with the existence and general direction and extent of many of these branches. Even their colonies slowly extended along the banks of some of these subordinate streams, especially of those branches which fell into the Missisippi near its mouth. The two lowermost, or most southern of these branches are the Red river and the Black river. The former, enclosing the Missisippi, may be considered as belonging to the valley formed by that great river, but as the river next to it on the west enters the gulf of Mexico, the geographical limits of this valley must be placed between these two rivers.

The Spanish territory, in this quarter, is called New Mexico. It lies between the western mountains and that unexplored and indefinite line which borders Louisiana on the north-west. It comprehends the course of several great rivers, whose course in general is parallel to that of many branches of the Missisippi, but they lie so far west as to fall into the Mexican gulf.

Difficulties and disputes very early arose as to the true limits of the ceded territory, both on the side of Florida and of Mexico. The original treaty merely referred to the limits indicated by former treaties between France and Spain, but, at the time of making these treaties, the geographical situation of the country was unknown, and even the unerring rule of an astronomical line, to be afterwards traced by celestial observation, was not established. The bounds pointed out by the extent and direction of actual settlements was continually varying, since new colonies were every day advancing up the rivers, and penetrating further into the forests.

But though these uncertainties were natural and unavoidable, and such as must for a time give rise to frequent diplomatic discussions, a distant and dispassionate observer might naturally imagine that an amicable decision of the controversy would always and speedily take place. The subjects in dispute were of so little moment, and the consequences of deciding either way so obscure and insignificant, that neither obstinacy nor self interest could be expected to delay the settlement. Spain has five or six millions of square miles of territory, in the western hemisphere, to which her right is wholly undisputed. About forty-nine fiftieths of this is unoccupied, except by savages, who are hastening to extinction, and whose claims are no more regarded than those of the stag or panther which roam in their company over the same wilderness.

Even in this quarter, New Mexico stretches out indefinitely towards the west and north. Scarcely a fortieth part of it is applied to human use; consequently whether their claim of sovereignty extend a few miles further into the bog or the forest or not, at this or that corner, may indeed be a question necessary to be decided, but is such a one, it should seem, as Spain must be equally disposed to decide either way.

The same observations may be applied to the United States. A nation that has more than five hundred millions of acres unoccupied and even unsurveyed, and whose lawful limits on one side can only be

reached by a journey of many weeks or months, through a vacant country, cannot feel deeply interested in debating, whether the frontier line on one part shall run forty miles further east or further west. Even if ten or twenty plantations, and some hundreds of subjects be lost to the empire by yielding to the adverse claim, a nation which has six millions of subjects at present, and may count upon forty millions in the next generation, cannot be supposed to be very pertinacious in such a case.

These theoretical conclusions, however, are never justified by the actual conduct of nations. Spain was willing to provoke a war with Great Britain, at one time, for the property of the Falkland isles, which were too bleak and barren for either nation to inhabit, and, at another time, for the right of calling Nootka sound her own, though even her ships never visited the country; and Great Britain was no less eager to resist than Spain was to establish these ridiculous claims. The ardour of the controversy, on these occasions, is by no means proportioned to the value of the subject in debate. Nations run to arms with more fury to resent and avenge an insult, than to retrieve property or re-establish a privilege, and the encroachments of a neighbour are regarded with indignation chiefly as they imply a contempt or defiance of our power.

There is a small settlement or village called *Bayou Pierre*, on the Red river, originally planted by a French colony, and consequently included within the boundaries of Louisiana while France was in possession of that province. Being very small, and one of the remotest settlements in this quarter, the American government overlooked it, when the province was transferred, under the contract with France, and the Spaniards continued to maintain a military guard at this post. The Spanish government seemed disposed to retain possession of this station, or at least its officers thought themselves under a military obligation to keep their footing till regularly ordered by their own superiors to relinquish it. In the summer of 1806, the disputes upon this subject had like to have terminated in an open war. A considerable force advanced from the heart of the Spanish territory, and took post at Bayou Pierre. The regular troops of the United States, in this quarter, reinforced by detachments from the militia of New Orleans and the adjacent districts, advanced against them, but all bloodshed was happily prevented by the Spanish officers agreeing to consider the Sabine river as the common frontier till the orders of the governor of Mexico should be known. No new violence or encroachment has since occurred in this quarter, and this dispute, together with those previously existing, will probably be peacefully decided by negociation at Madrid. When the results of this negociation become more determinate than they are at present, we shall have a proper opportunity of unfolding the origin, progress, and true nature of our controversies with the Spanish government.

The intercourse between the American states and the maritime nations of Europe is intimately connected with the mutual relations subsisting between these nations. Almost all the finer manufactures consumed in America, and many of those articles of furniture, dress,

and diet, which custom has converted into necessaries of life, are imported from Europe or its colonies. A large portion of the products of agriculture in America is given in exchange for these, and this commerce is, at all times, for the most part carried on in American vessels. The ordinary channels of this commerce, when foreign nations are at peace with each other, depend upon many of their domestic regulations, in making which they have in view the advancement of their own commercial prosperity. These regulations refer particularly to the intercourse between European states and their colonies; and consist chiefly in excluding all foreign nations from the direct commerce of these colonies. In times of war, when the direct commercial intercourse between the colony and mother country becomes more or less dangerous and difficult, as the tide of military success by sea ebbs or flows, some degree of relaxation necessarily takes place in these restraints, and neutral nations are allowed to trade with the colony, first, that the colony may not suffer through the want of trade, even if the mother country cannot profit by it, and, secondly, to enable the mother country indirectly to derive advantage from the existence of the colony, by receiving its products at second hand. The American nation being, in an eminent degree, a trading one, and having a great command of shipping, their prosperity is greatly influenced by the rigour or relaxation of these restraints. In time of war, not only the domestic demand, when the colonial trade is more open than at other times, may be more easily and plentifully supplied, but their shipping may carry the produce of the colonies, either directly or circuitously to the mother country, and thus levy a large profit on the carriage.

The benefit naturally flowing to a neutral nation from this circumstance, is not, however, without many inconveniences to balance it. As the chief object of a naval war must always be to cut off the intercourse and destroy the trade of the hostile nation, between the different members of the same empire, and between the empire and foreign states, each must necessarily regard any expedient by which this intercourse is screened from his controul, and its benefits either continued to the enemy, or monopolized by others, with the utmost jealousy, suspicion, and displeasure. There must always be a restless and unconquerable disposition to fetter and circumscribe this privilege of neutrals as much as possible; to multiply general obstacles to the exertion of it, and, in particular cases, to violate and trample on it, wherever this can be done without discovery or punishment. Unfortunately, the amount or value of the neutral trade thus created by war has an equal but untoward influence on all the parties. The benefits redounding from it to the neutral power is proportioned to the benefits accruing to one of the parties at war, and is, consequently, proportioned to the loss or injury which the other party imagines himself to suffer by it: according to the logic received among enemies, and which makes the gain of each to be considered as equivalent loss to the other.

The consequences of these clashing interests are easily foreseen. If there be any equipoise of naval power or colonial empire between

the combatants, the neutral trade must suffer continual and alternate vexation and pillage from either party. The neutral nation must incur incessant injuries and provocations to war from all the parties already engaged. These provocations will of course be greatly multiplied by all the circumstances which give one warring nation a superiority to the other in naval power, because this must increase the dependence of the vanquished party on the neutral, and, by promoting the trade, it enhances the profit of the neutral: the victorious party is, by his victories, freed from any similar obligation to the neutral, and has less occasion to dread his resentment. If we add to these suppositions, that the trade of the neutral is enormous in extent and variety, but the naval power, by which he might maintain it, is nothing, while that of the offending party is above all fear of resistance or rivalship, what must ensue but incessant pillage and constraint upon the neutral trade, and an accumulation of those injuries and insults which lead nations to war?

All these suppositions are realized in the commercial history of the United States. The chief maritime and colonizing nations of Europe have long been at war. France, Spain, and Holland, on one side, are at war with England on the other. The naval superiority of England is such, that the whole trade of her enemies is at her mercy. This trade, therefore, can only be safely carried on by neutrals. Among neutral nations, that which is most able and willing to carry on this trade, and at the same time almost entirely destitute of any means for defending it when attacked, is America. As the ambition of naval power, and the spirit of trade, are exalted to a higher pitch in the English than any other nation, hence arise new incitements to jealousy and insolence with regard to the privileges of neutral trade.

It is well known that America has been embroiled in continual disputes with the two great rivals in Europe, since the opening of the revolutionary war. The efforts of France and England to close up or obstruct the new channels opened to the American trade by their mutual hostilities, have subjected that trade to infinite pillage and vexation, sometimes from one side and sometimes from the other. These injuries have been followed by complaints, negociations, and, in one case, and for a short period, by hostilities; but to have hitherto escaped a regular and destructive war, in consequence of these injuries, is certainly a subject of surprise. Prudence or pusillanimity on one side, or moderation and forbearance on the other, carried to a remarkable extent, can only explain the continuance of peace, with so little interruption, between America and Europe.

The relations between America and France have been disturbed, not only by the prosecution of the neutral trade with the British dominions, but by the peculiar situation of St. Domingo. That island formed the richest and most extensive of the foreign territories of the French, but was quickly wrested from their hands by a rebellion of their slaves. The French seized the opportunity of a short pause in the general war to attempt the recovery of this island. This attempt was defeated chiefly by a renewal of the war, and it is now three or four years since the island has been in full possession of the negroes,

and since they have maintained their claim to the dignity and privileges of an independent state. As they continue to cultivate, though to a less extent than formerly, the staple article, coffee, and to demand the manufactures of other countries, their trade is of very great value to a neutral nation. The French, however, were not only at war with the blacks of St. Domingo, and interested, therefore, merely as enemies in distressing and impoverishing them by cutting off their trade, but they likewise chose to consider the blacks as revolted subjects, whom to trade with was to assist, and required from their friends the discontinuance of all commercial intercourse with St. Domingo. Though it is obvious that a case of this kind is susceptible of much doubt and controversy, yet it was undoubtedly wise and politic in the United States to prohibit this trade, not only because the object was not of sufficient value to justify a war, even if justice were clear and prompt in her decision as to its propriety; but, because such are the shifts and artifices of traders, that the prohibition, though made with all the rigour that our equitable constitution allows, is easily evaded. The produce of St. Domingo is still brought into the American ports, and a part of it exported to Europe; but the trade is managed by adventurers, who, for this purpose, metamorphose themselves into Swedes or Danes, and who defend themselves, by force of arms, against assailants of equal or inferior force. How far the continuance of this trade depends upon remissness in the execution of the prohibitory law, or in the imperfect provisions of the law itself, or on the connivance of the French, whose subjects are enriched by the occasional forfeitures of the vessels engaged in it, is a matter of some doubt.

The relations between America and Great Britain are attended, also, with peculiar circumstances. These partly arise from the superiority of the British naval power to that of all other nations, in consequence of which they scarcely stand in need of the protection of a neutral flag to keep up their commercial intercourse with their colonies, or with other states. Their business, therefore, is to watch and intercept the trade of their enemies, and to profit by every pretext which ingenuity, sharpened by hatred to France, and by the lust of gain, can invent, to shackle or destroy the commerce of all neutral states with the French dominions. There is, however, another circumstance peculiar to the relation between America and Britain, by which the amity of these powers is subjected to perpetual hazard.

The United States, being originally founded by colonies from the British islands, being still the resort of numerous emigrants from those islands, and having an intimate community of blood, manners, and language, of literature and trade, with them, they may justly be considered as branches belonging to the same national stock. There are no indisputable marks in dress, diet, dialect, feature, or figure, by which they are distinguished from each other. Hence, emigrants from either country easily and unavoidably incorporate with the new body to which they join themselves, and the advantages arising from the local state of America afford a powerful temptation to the adventurous and needy, among the subjects of Great Britain, to take up their abode in the new world. These inducements are particularly strong with regard to

sailors. A war in Europe gives a sudden enlargement to the American trade, and consequently augments the demand for sailors, beyond the power of the United States immediately to supply from the native stock of sea-faring citizens. Wages consequently increase, and British sailors are allured, in vast numbers, to the neutral standard, not only by the bait of higher wages, but in order to avoid the hardships of the naval service at home.

The English, it is well known, supply their ships of war with the necessary hands by voluntary enlistments, if they can; but, if this mode be insufficient, they resort to violence. Every sailor, or person qualified to become such, is liable to be seized, and compelled to serve on board of ships of war. A war, which creates a new demand for sailors in the king's ships, commonly, by impeding or circumscribing trade, lessens the demand for them on board of merchant ships. Hence the sailor is sometimes compelled, by want or by a restless disposition, freely to enter the public service, but this service being for an indefinite period, is, on that account, extremely irksome, and the naval system of England would stand still, if the sailors could only be enlisted with their own consent. In every war, therefore, vast numbers are taken from on board of merchant ships by force, or traced to places of concealment, and carried away as prisoners. This, therefore, forms an additional inducement to British sailors to enter the service of American merchants.

The advantages of the American service, therefore, in times of war, are not only injurious to British traders, by increasing the wages of the mariner, but detrimental to the British navy, by depriving it of the hands which it stands in need of. Hence a new cause of jealousy and animosity between the two nations, for, as the British law considers every native of the country as perpetually saddled with the obligations of a subject, notwithstanding any change of residence, masters of ships of war think themselves entitled to take a sailor that was once English, wherever he is found. This practice is not only, in all cases, a great inconvenience to the American trader, but it is frequently an insult to the dignity, and a violation of the independence of the state itself. The laws of the United States confer the rights of citizens on all persons who have been, for a certain period, in the country, or in the maritime service of their citizens. The sailor, therefore, who is impressed by an English naval officer, though English by birth, may have become an American citizen, and as such may be entitled to the protection of his new country. The evil indeed does not stop here, because, when an English ship of war lights on a defenceless trader from America, if the former want hands, she will make little difficulty in taking whomsoever she wants, even though the person taken should be as truly American as nativity can make him. It is well known, indeed, that, from the very nature of the case, the witnesses and testimonies necessary to procure a certificate of being a citizen, or a *protection*, as it is called, are easily and are frequently suborned and forged, but as this is unavoidable, the injury and insult to the neutral nation is gross and entire, in all cases where the forgery or perjury is not legally proved.

From these sources have hitherto sprung all the bickerings and jealousies between the two nations. Happily, their territorial limits are so clearly defined, or the deserts between them are of so little value, that hitherto no cause of dissention has arisen from that quarter. The occasions of offence are entirely confined to the sea, and their disputes have hitherto been carried on by diplomatic weapons only. As they necessarily rise out of a state of war in Europe, they may be expected to terminate with that war, and furnish additional motives to the friend of mankind for deploring the rage of hostility, even among neighbours.

As our national transactions with foreign states have, for some years, chiefly originated in the violations and encroachments which our trade has undergone from Great Britain, historical perspicuity requires that we should take a clear view of the principles and facts relative to this important subject. The actual consequences of the war in Europe to our national prosperity, in the channels which it has opened to our trade as a neutral state, form a complicated and abstruse, but a useful and curious topic of inquiry. How far this commerce has been checked and obstructed, and to what degree the rights and dignity of our country, as an independent and sovereign state, have been violated by the belligerent states, are points of no less importance. Hitherto, though much eloquence and technical erudition have been displayed in discussing those maxims of the law of nations which are thought to have some bearing on these subjects, we have not met with any plain, succinct, and historical view of these transactions. This undertaking is, indeed, a humble one, but it seems not deficient in utility, nor without it does it seem easy for common and unlearned readers to form accurate conceptions of a cause in which all of us are deeply interested.

It is well known that negociations relative to these points have been long depending between the two nations. An event that happened in June, 1807, has given, in some degree, a new face to this great controversy, and will probably bring it to a speedy conclusion. At present, therefore, we shall content ourselves with the general and preliminary views already given, and reserve a more particular inquiry and detail till the opening of the next year, when war, or a more genuine peace than has existed for many years, will probably be near at hand. If a treaty take place, the two nations will finally and certainly know what privileges they retain and what they give up, and the grounds of future quarrels be in a great measure removed.

There is an important event in the domestic history of the United States, to which the year one thousand eight hundred and six gave birth; but the true nature and character of which is not yet fully explained. As this explanation will probably take place in the course of the present year, there is a double reason for deferring a full account of it till a future opportunity. We allude to a conspiracy said to be formed by Aaron Burr, for the purpose of subverting the present government of the United States. A just regard to truth, and to

the reputation of an eminent person, will induce us for the present to be wholly silent on this subject, and this silence we adopt with less reluctance, because the legal inquiry now making cannot fail of giving, in a short time, as much light and certainty to this transaction as such subjects admit of.

AN ABSTRACT

OF ALL THE

LAWS AND PUBLIC ACTS

PASSED IN THE FIRST SESSION

OF THE

NINTH CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES,

BETWEEN DECEMBER 11, 1805, AND APRIL 21, 1806.

AN ABSTRACT

OF ALL THE

LAWS AND PUBLIC ACTS.

I. IN addition to the sum heretofore appropriated for that object, the sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, is appropriated by this act towards defraying the expences of the navy of the United States, during the year one thousand eight hundred and five.

The aforesaid sum to be paid out of the monies accruing at the end of the year one thousand eight hundred and five, from the duties laid by the act, *Further to protect the commerce and seamen of the United States against the Barbary powers.*

II. The balance of the appropriation of three millions seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars, made by the act *making provision for the payment of claims of American citizens in France, assumed by the United States by the convention of April* 30, 1803, which may remain unexpended on the thirty-first of December, one thousand eight hundred and five, is appropriated by this act to the same purpose for which it was originally appropriated.

III. For supplying the deficiency in the appropriation for the naval service, during the year one thousand eight hundred and five, the further sum of three hundred and fifty thousand dollars is appropriated by this act.

IV. The secretary of the treasury is authorised by this act to cause two light houses to be erected in Long Island Sound, one on Watch Hill Point, in the town of Westerly, and state of Rhode Island, and the other on Sand's or Watch Point, in the town of Northampsted, on Long Island, in the state of New York, and to appoint the keepers of the said light houses, (under the direction of the president of the United States,) and otherwise provide for such light houses, at the expence of the United States; provided sufficient land for the purpose can be obtained at a reasonable price, and the legislatures of Rhode Island and New York shall cede the jurisdiction over the same to the United States. And a sum not exceeding six thousand dollars is ap-

propriated for defraying the expence of erecting the said light houses. It shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury to cause the said light houses so to be constructed that their lights, on being discovered, may with certainty be distinguished from those of all other light houses, heretofore erected in their neighbourhood.

The town or landing place of Roxbury, in the state of Massachusetts, shall be a port of delivery, annexed to the district of Boston and Charlestown, and shall be subject to the same regulations and restrictions, as other ports of delivery in the United States.

V. Two millions of dollars are appropriated by this act toward defraying any extraordinary expences incurred in the intercourse between the United States and foreign nations, to be applied under the direction of the president, who shall cause an account thereof to be laid before congress, as soon as may be.

The president is authorized, if necessary, to borrow this sum, or any part, at a rate of interest not exceeding six per cent. per annum, redeemable at the will of congress. And it is lawful for the bank of the United States to lend the whole, or any part of the same.

So much as may be necessary of the surplus of the duties on imports and tonnage, beyond the permanent appropriation heretofore charged on them, is pledged for the payment of the interest and principal of all such monies as may be borrowed in pursuance of this act, according to the terms and conditions on which the loan may be effected.

VI. In addition to the unexpended balance of the former appropriation made to purchase books for the use of congress, which is, by this act revived and continued, one thousand dollars yearly, for five years is likewise appropriated to be expended under the direction of a joint committee of three members of the senate, and three of the house of representatives, to be appointed every session during the continuance of these five years.

VII. So much of the fourth section of an act to authorize a grant of lands to the French inhabitants of Galliopolis, and for other purposes therein mentioned, as imposes the condition of an actual settlement on the said inhabitants, or any of them, their heirs or assigns, is repealed by this act. And in every case where a patent has issued, in conformity with the said fourth section, to any of the inhabitants aforesaid, their heirs or assigns, the conditions aforesaid, inserted in any such patent, is to be considered null and void; and the fee simple be vested in the person to whom such patent has been issued, his or her heirs or assigns.

VIII. The proper officers of the treasury are by this act to settle, at the rate of compensation heretofore established, the accounts of the governor, secretary, and judges of the late territory of the United States north-west of the river Ohio, for their services while acting in those capacities, respectively, at any time between the twenty-ninth of November, one thousand eight hundred and two, and the first Tuesday of March, one thousand eight hundred and three.

IX. All commercial intercourse between persons resident within the United States, and persons resident within any part of the island of

St. Domingo, not in possession, and under the acknowledged government of France, is prohibited by this act: and any vessel, owned, or employed, wholly or in part, by any persons resident within the United States, and sailing from any port of the United States, after due notice of this act at the custom houses respectively, which shall be voluntarily carried or destined, directly or indirectly, to any place within the island of St. Domingo, not in possession, and under the acknowledged government of France; and any cargo found on board of such vessel, when detected in such purpose, or at her return from such voyage to the United States, shall be forfeited, and may be seized and condemned in any court of the United States having competent jurisdiction.

After due notice of this act at the several custom houses, no vessel can receive a clearance for any port of St. Domingo not in the actual possession of France; nor any clearance be granted for a foreign voyage to any vessel, owned, or employed, wholly or in part, by any persons resident within the United States, till the owner or employer, or agent, with the master, shall give bond to the United States in a sum equal to the value of the vessel and cargo, with condition that the vessel is not destined to some port of St. Domingo, not in the actual possession, and under the acknowledged government of France, and during the intended voyage shall not be voluntarily carried, or permitted to proceed, whether directly or indirectly, to any port of St. Domingo not in the actual possession, and under the acknowledged government of France; and in case of being forced by any casualty into any place thus interdicted, shall not while there sell or unlade any part of such cargo, except so much as may be absolutely necessary to defray the expences requisite to enable her to proceed on her intended voyage; and, generally, that such vessel, while on such voyage, shall not be employed in any traffic, with or for any person in the island of St. Domingo not under the French.

All penalties and forfeitures incurred by force of this act, and recovered, shall be distributed and accounted for, in the manner prescribed by the act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage, passed the second of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine, and may be mitigated or remitted in the manner prescribed by the act to provide for mitigating or remitting the forfeitures, &c. accruing in certain cases therein mentioned, passed the third of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety seven, and made perpetual by an act passed the eleventh of February, one thousand eight hundred.

This act to continue in force for one year only.

At any time after the passing of this act it is made lawful for the president of the United States, by his order, to remit and discontinue the restraints on the commerce aforesaid.

X. For the disposal of certain land, belonging to the United States, in the town of Cincinnati, on the Ohio, on which Fort Washington was erected, the secretary of the treasury is, by this act, to cause the said tract to be surveyed and laid off into town lots, streets, and avenues, in such manner as he may judge proper, conforming as near as

may be to the original plan of the town: when the survey is completed, a plat to be returned to the surveyor general, on which the lots shall be denominated by progressive numbers, who is therefrom to cause two copies to be made, one for the secretary of the treasury, and the other for the register of the land office at Cincinnati; on the receipt of which, the secretary of the treasury is to cause the said town lots to be sold at public sale, at Cincinnati, under the superintendence of the register and receiver of the land office in the district of Cincinnati, on the same terms as the public lands of the United States are directed to be sold. Six weeks notice to be given of the day of sale, in at least two newspapers published in the state of Ohio.

XI. The powers vested by law in the surveyor general is made, by this act, to extend over all the public lands of the United States, in Louisiana, to which the Indian title may be extinguished. The surveyor general is required to appoint skilful deputies in the said territory, one of whom to be, with the approbation of the secretary of the treasury, his principal deputy for the same. Which deputies are to take an oath, or affirmation, faithfully to discharge the duties of their office. The principal deputy must reside and keep an office in the said territory, and, under the superintendence of the surveyor general, execute by himself, or by the other deputies, such surveys as may be authorised by law, or directed by the commissioners for ascertaining the titles to land within the territory, and must generally perform the duties imposed by law on the surveyor general.

All the plots of surveys, and other documents pertaining to the office of surveyor general, under the Spanish government, within the territory, or to any other office heretofore established for executing or recording surveys of lands, must be delivered to the principal deputy, and no plot of survey be admitted as evidence in any court, unless certified by the principal deputy to be a true copy of the record in his office.

So much of the act for adjusting the titles to land within the territory of Orleans, and the district of Louisiana, as makes it the duty of every claimant to deliver to the recorder of land-titles a plot of the tract claimed, is repealed, so far as relates to claimants whose tracts had not been surveyed by the proper officer, under the Spanish government, prior to the twentieth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and three. And the commissioners for ascertaining the titles to lands, within the territory of Louisiana, or of Orleans, are authorized to direct the officer exercising the powers of surveyor general, to execute such surveys as they may think necessary, for the purpose of deciding on claims presented for their decision. The expence of executing such surveys to be defrayed by the parties claiming, unless the same be claimed by a legal French or Spanish grant, completed before the first of October, one thousand eight hundred; every such survey, as well as every other, the above mentioned legal and complete titles only excepted, must be considered as private surveys only; and all the tracts of land, the titles to which may be ultimately confirmed by congress, agreeably to the provisions of the act above mentioned, must, prior to the issuing of patents, be surveyed, if judged necessary,

under the authority of the person exercising the powers of surveyor general, and at the expence of the parties.

The surveyor general must fix the compensation of the deputy surveyors, chain carriers, and axe-men, in the territory of Louisiana: provided that the whole expence of surveying and marking the lines shall not exceed three dollars per mile, for every mile actually run, or surveyed and marked. And the principal deputy is entitled to receive from private persons, for examining and recording the surveys executed by any of the deputies, at the rate of twenty-five cents for every mile of the boundary line of such survey; and for a certified copy of any plot of a survey in his office, twenty-five cents.

XII. The consent of congress is granted by this act to the operation of an act of the legislature of Pennsylvania, passed on the first of April, one thousand eight hundred and five, to empower the board of wardens for the port of Philadelphia to collect a certain duty on tonnage for the purposes therein mentioned, so far as to enable the state of Pennsylvania to collect a duty of four cents per ton, on all vessels which shall clear out from the port of Philadelphia for any foreign place, to be expended in building piers in, and otherwise improving the navigation of the river Delaware, agreeably to the intentions of the said act.

XIII. The June term of the circuit court, holden for the district of North Carolina, on the fifteenth day of June, is ordered by this act to be holden on the twentieth of the same month, and all actions, and proceedings civil or criminal in the said court, and all recognizances returnable on the fifteenth day of June, must be continued, returned to, and have day in the session to be holden by this act, and the same proceedings be had thereon as if this alteration had never been made, provided, when the twentieth day of June shall happen on Sunday, the next shall be the first juridical day.

From the first of August, 1806, so much of every law as directs a district court for the Kentucky district to be holden on the first Monday in July in every year is by this act repealed.

XIV. The county courts within, or next adjoining the revenue districts hereinafter mentioned, are authorised by this act to take cognizance of all complaints and prosecutions for fines, penalties, and forfeitures, arising under the revenue laws of the United States in the districts of Champlain, Sacket Harbour, Oswego, Genessee, Niagara, and Buffaloe Creek, in the state of New York, and in the district of Presque Isle, in the state of Pennsylvania, and the district attornies of New York and Pennsylvania are directed to appoint by warrant an attorney as their deputy, to prosecute for the United States in the county courts, who must be sworn or affirmed to the faithful execution of his duty. This act does not extend jurisdiction to the county courts over any civil cause which may arise in any of those revenue districts, for the collection of duties payable to the United States, or of bonds or securities given for the payment of such duties.

The county courts aforesaid, or the first judge of each of said courts, are further authorized to exercise the power in criminal cases cognizable before them by virtue of this act, for obtaining a mitigation or

remission of any fine or forfeiture which may be exercised by the judges of the district courts, in cases depending before them by virtue of the law of the United States, passed on the third of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-seven, to provide for mitigating or remitting the forfeitures, penalties, and disabilities, accruing in certain cases therein mentioned, and in the exercise of this authority they must be governed in every respect by the regulations of the law of the United States, passed on the third of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-seven, aforesaid, with this difference only, that instead of notifying the district attornies respectively, said county courts, or the first judges thereof, must cause reasonable notice to be given to the attorney for the United States in such court, that he may have an opportunity of showing cause against the mitigation or remission of such fine or forfeiture.

This act to remain in force only during one year, and thence to the end of the next session of congress thereafter.

XV. The town or landing place of Jersey, in the state of New Jersey, is by this act made a port of delivery, annexed to the district of Perth Amboy, and is subjected to the same regulations as other ports of delivery in the United States. A surveyor is to reside at the said port, who is to receive, in addition to the other emoluments allowed by law, one hundred dollars a year.

The secretary of the treasury is required to cause a light house to be erected on Wood Island, or on Fletcher's Neck, in the district of Maine, as the president of the United States may deem most eligible, and to appoint a keeper, and otherwise provide for it at the expense of the United States, provided sufficient land for the purpose can be obtained at a reasonable price, and the legislature of Massachusetts shall cede the jurisdiction over the same to the United States. Five thousand dollars is appropriated for the erection of the light house.

XVI. Stephen B. Balsh, W. Whann, J Melvin, J. Maffit, J. Peter, J. Dawson, J. Calder, G. Thompson, R. Elliott, D. Wiley, and A. Ross, and their sucessors duly appointed, are by this act constituted a corporation by the title of the trustees of the Presbyterian congregation in George-town.

All the lands, goods, and chattels, given to the said congregation, or to any person for its use, or purchased for the same, are vested in the said corporation, and all the customary powers of purchasing or alienating property granted to it, provided the clear annual income of such property may not exceed three thousand dollars, that no part of the ground now inclosed for a grave yard be disposed of for any other purpose, and that their property be held only for the purpose of defraying the expenses of religious worship, of enclosing and keeping in decent repair their grave yards and other lots with the buildings, and of affording such relief to the poor as their funds may from time to time allow.

XVII. The consent of congress is granted by this act, for three years, to the operation of a law of the state of South Carolina, passed the twenty-first of December, one thousand eight hundred and four, to authorise the city council of Charleston, with the consent of congress, to levy a duty on the tonnage of vessels for the purposes therein men-

tioned, so far as the same authorizes the city council of Charleston to levy a duty not exceeding six cents per ton, on all vessels of the United States entered in the port of Charleston from any foreign place.

The collector of Charleston is authorized to collect the duty imposed by this act, and to pay the same to persons authorized to receive the same by the city council of Charleston.

XVIII. The secretary of the treasury is directed by this act to pay to Peter Landais, late a captain of one of the armed vessels of the United States, four thousand dollars, on account of his claim to prize money accruing from certain captures made and carried into Bergen, in the year one thousand seven hundred and seventy-nine, to be deducted from his proportion of the money which may be obtained from the Danish government, in satisfaction of the said claim.

XIX. The president of the United States is authorized by this act to appoint, with consent of the senate, three citizens of the United States to lay out a road from Cumberland, or a point on the northern bank of the river Potomac, in the state of Maryland, between Cumberland and the place where the main road leading from Gwinns to Winchester, in Virginia, crosses the river to the state of Ohio. These persons are ordered, as soon as may be after their appointment, to repair to Cumberland, and view the ground from the points on the river Potomac herein designated to the river Ohio, and to lay out a road from thence to the river Ohio, to strike the same at the most convenient place, between a point on its eastern bank, opposite to the northern boundary of Steubenville, in the state of Ohio, and the mouth of Grave creek, which empties into the said river, a little below Wheeling, in Virginia.

The road must be laid out four rods in width, and indicated on each side by marks on trees, or by stakes or monuments, sufficiently conspicuous, in every quarter of a mile of the distance, at least, where the road pursues a straight course so far or farther, and on each side, at every point where an angle occurs in its course.

The commissioners, as soon as may be, after they have laid out said road, must present to the president an accurate plan of the same, with its several courses and distances, accompanied by a written report of their proceedings, describing the marks and monuments by which the road is designated, and the face of the country over which it passes, and pointing out the particular parts, which they shall judge require the most and immediate attention and improvement; and the probable expence of making the same passable in the most difficult parts, and through the whole distance: showing the state or states through which the road has been laid out, and the length of the several parts which are laid out on new ground, as well as the length of those parts laid out on the road now travelled. Which report the president is authorized to accept or reject, in the whole, or in part. If he accepts, he is further authorized to obtain consent for making the road, of the state or states through which the same has been laid out. He is further authorized to cause the road to be made through the whole dis-

tance, or in any part, as he shall judge proper, having reference to the sum appropriated for the purpose.

All parts of the road which the president shall direct to be made, in case the trees are standing, shall be cleared the whole width of four rods; and the road shall be raised in the middle of the carriage way with stone, earth, or gravel and sand, or a combination of some or all of them, leaving or making, as the case may be, a ditch or water course on each side, and contiguous to the carriage way; and in no instance shall there be an elevation in the road, when finished, greater than an angle of five degrees with the horizon. But the manner of making the road, in every other particular, is left to the direction of the president.

The commissioners shall each receive four dollars per day, while employed, in full for their compensation, including all expences. And they are authorized to employ one surveyor, two chainmen, and one marker, for whose faithfulness and accuracy they shall be responsible, to attend them in laying out said road, who shall receive, in full satisfaction for wages, including all expences, the surveyor three dollars per day, and each chainman and the marker one dollar per day, while employed in this business; of which fact, a certificate signed by the commissioners shall be sufficient evidence.

Thirty thousand dollars are appropriated, by this act, to laying out and making this road. And the president is authorized to draw, from time to time, on the treasury, for such parts, or the whole of the sum, as he shall judge the service requires. Which sum shall be paid, first, out of the fund of two per cent. reserved for laying out and making roads to the state of Ohio, by virtue of an act passed on the thirtieth day of April, 1802, to enable the people of the eastern division of the territory north-west of the river Ohio, to form a constitution and state government, and for the admission of such state into the union, on an equal footing with the original states; and for other purposes.—Three per cent. of the appropriation contained in the seventh section being directed by a subsequent law to the laying out of roads within the state of Ohio. And, secondly, out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, reimbursable by the said fund of two per cent. as the same shall accrue.

The president is requested to lay before congress, as soon as convenience will permit, after the commencement of each session, a statement of the proceedings under this act, that congress may be enabled to adopt such further measures as may, from time to time, be proper.

XX. This act prescribes the following rules by which the armies of the United States shall be governed, after the tenth of April, 1806:

1. Every officer now in the army of the United States shall, in six months from the tenth of April, 1806, and every officer hereafter appointed shall, before he enters on his office, subscribe these rules and regulations.

2. It is earnestly recommended to all officers and soldiers diligently to attend divine service; and all officers who shall behave indecently or irreverently at any place of worship shall, if commissioned officers,

be brought before a general court martial, there to be publicly and severely reprimanded by the president; if non commissioned officers or soldiers, every person so offending shall, for his first offence, forfeit *one sixth of a dollar*, to be deducted out of his next pay; for the second offence, he shall forfeit a like sum, and also be confined twenty-four hours; and for every like offence shall suffer and pay in like manner; which forfeitures shall be applied, by the captain or senior officer of the troop or company, to the use of the sick soldiers of the company or troop to which the offender belongs.

3. Any non commissioned officer or soldier who shall use any profane oath or execration shall incur the penalties expressed in the foregoing article; and a commissioned officer shall forfeit and pay for each offence *one dollar*, to be applied as in the preceding article.

4. Every chaplain in the army who shall absent himself from the duties assigned him, except in cases of sickness or leave of absence, shall, on conviction before a court martial, be fined not exceeding one month's pay, besides the loss of his pay during his absence; or be discharged, as the court martial shall judge proper.

5. Any officer or soldier, who shall use contemptuous or disrespectful words against the president, the vice president, the congress, or the chief magistrate or legislature of any of the United States, in which he may be quartered, if a commissioned officer, shall be cashiered, or otherwise punished, as a court martial shall direct; if a non commissioned officer or soldier, punishment shall be inflicted on him by the sentence of a court martial.

6. Any officer or soldier behaving himself with contempt or disrespect towards his commanding officer, shall be punished according to the nature of his offence, by a court martial.

7. Any officer or soldier who shall excite or join in any mutiny or sedition in any troop or company in the service of the United States, or in any party, or guard, shall suffer death, or such punishment as a court martial shall inflict.

8. Any officer, non commissioned officer or soldier, present at any mutiny or sedition, who does not use his utmost endeavour to suppress the same, or coming to the knowledge of any intended mutiny, does not, without delay, give information to his commanding officer, shall be punished by the sentence of a court martial with death, or otherwise, according to the nature of his offence.

9. Any officer or soldier who shall strike his superior officer, or draw or lift up any weapon, or offer any violence against him, being in the execution of his office, on any pretence whatever, or shall disobey any lawful command of his superior officer, shall suffer death, or such punishment as a court martial may inflict.

10. Every non commissioned officer or soldier enlisting in the service of the United States shall, at the time of enlisting, or within six days after, have the articles for the government of the armies of the United States read to him, and shall, by the officer who enlisted him, or by the commanding officer of the troop or company into which he was enlisted, be taken before the next justice of the peace, or chief magistrate of any city or town corporate, not being an officer

of the army, or, where recourse cannot be had to the civil magistrate, before the judge advocate, and, in his presence, shall take the following oath, "I, A. B., do solemnly swear, that I will bear true allegiance to the United States of America, and that I will serve them honestly and faithfully against all their enemies or opposers whatever, and observe and obey the orders of the president, and the orders of the officers appointed over me, according to the rules and articles for the government of the armies of the United States:" Which justice, magistrate, or judge advocate, is to give the officer a certificate, signifying that the man enlisted did take the said oath,

11. After a non commissioned officer or soldier is duly enlisted and sworn, he shall not be dismissed the service without a discharge in writing; and no discharge granted to him shall be sufficient, which is not signed by a field officer of the regiment to which he belongs, or commanding officer where no field officer of the regiment is present; and no discharge shall be given to a non commissioned officer, or soldier, before his term of service has expired, but by order of the president, the secretary of war, the commanding officer of a department, or the sentence of a general court martial; nor shall a commissioned officer be discharged the service, but by order of the president, or by sentence of a general court martial.

12. Every colonel, or other officer, commanding a regiment, troop, or company, and actually quartered with it, may give furloughs to non commissioned officers or soldiers, in such numbers, and for so long a time as he shall judge consistent with the good of the service; and a captain, or other inferior officer, commanding a troop or company, or in any garrison, fort, or barrack of the United States, his field officer being absent, may give furloughs to non commissioned officers or soldiers, for a time not exceeding twenty days in six months, but not to more than two persons to be absent at the same time, except some extraordinary occasion require it.

13. At every muster the commanding officer of each regiment, troop, or company there present, shall give to the commissary of musters, or other officer who musters the said regiment, certificates signed by himself, declaring how long such officers as shall not appear at the said muster, have been absent, and the reason of their absence. In like manner, the commanding officer of every troop or company, shall give certificates, declaring the reasons of the absence, which reasons, and time of absence, shall be inserted in the muster rolls, opposite the name of the respective absent officers and soldiers. The certificates shall, together with the muster rolls, be remitted by the commissary of musters, or other officer mustering, to the department of war, as speedily as the distance of the place will admit.

14. Every officer convicted, before a general court martial, of having signed a false certificate, relating to the absence of either officer or private, or relative to his or their pay, shall be cashiered.

15. Every officer that knowingly makes a false muster of man or horse, and every officer or commissary of musters, who shall willingly sign, direct or allow the signing of muster rolls, wherein such

false muster is contained, shall, on proof made by two witnesses, before a general court martial, be cashiered, and be utterly disabled to hold any employment in the service of the United States.

16. Any commissary of musters, or other officer, who shall be convicted of having taken money or other thing, by way of gratification, on mustering any regiment, troop, or company, or on signing muster rolls, shall be displaced from his office, and shall be thereby utterly disabled to have or hold any office or employment in the service of the United States.

17. Any officer who shall muster a person as a soldier, who is not such, shall be deemed guilty of having made a false muster, and shall suffer accordingly.

18. Every officer who shall knowingly make a false return to the department of war, or to any of his superior officers, authorized to call for such returns, of the state of the regiment, troop, or company, or garrison under his command; or of the arms, ammunition, clothing, or other stores thereunto belonging, shall, on conviction before a court martial, be cashiered.

19. The commanding officer of every regiment, troop, or independent company, or garrison of the United States, shall, in the beginning of every month, remit, through the proper channels, to the department of war, an exact return of the regiment, troop, or independent company, or garrison, under his command, particularizing the names of the officers then absent from their posts, with the reasons for, and the time of their absence. And any officer, convicted of having, through neglect or design, omitted sending such returns, shall be punished according to the nature of his crime, by the judgment of a general court martial.

20. All officers and soldiers, who have received pay, or been duly enlisted in the service of the United States, and shall be convicted of having deserted the same, shall suffer death, or such punishment as the sentence of a court martial shall inflict.

21. Any non commissioned officer or soldier, who shall, without leave from his commanding officer, absent himself from his troop, company, or detachment, shall, on being convicted thereof, be punished at the discretion of a court martial.

22. No non commissioned officer or soldier shall enlist in any other regiment, troop, or company, without a regular discharge from the regiment, troop, or company in which he last served, on the penalty of being reputed a deserter, and suffering accordingly. And if any officer knowingly receive and entertain such non commissioned officer or soldier, or shall not, after his being discovered to be a deserter, immediately confine him, and give notice thereof to the corps in which he last served, he shall, by a court martial, be cashiered.

23. Any officer or soldier convicted of having advised or persuaded any other officer or soldier to desert the service of the United States, shall suffer death, or such punishment as a court martial, shall inflict.

24. No officer or soldier shall use any reproachful or provoking speeches or gestures to another, on pain, if an officer, of being put in

arrest; if a soldier, confined, and of asking pardon of the party offended, in the presence of his commanding officer.

25. No officer or soldier shall send a challenge to another officer or soldier, to fight a duel, or accept a challenge, if sent, on pain, if a commissioned officer, of being cashiered; if a non commissioned officer or soldier, of suffering corporal punishment, at the discretion of a court martial.

26. If any commissioned or non commissioned officer, commanding a guard, knowingly or willingly suffer any person whatever to go forth to fight a duel, he shall be punished as a challenger; and all seconds, promoters, and carriers of challenges, in order to duels, shall be deemed principals, and be punished accordingly. And it shall be the duty of every officer, commanding an army, regiment, company, post, or detachment, knowing to a challenge being given, or accepted, by any officer, non commissioned officer, or soldier, under his command, or has reason to believe the same to be the case, immediately to arrest and bring to trial such offenders.

27. All officers, of what condition soever, have power to part and quell all quarrels, frays, and disorders, though the persons concerned should belong to another regiment, troop, or company; and either to order officers into arrest, or non commissioned officers or soldiers into confinement, till their proper superior officers shall be acquainted therewith; and whoever shall refuse to obey such officer (though of an inferior rank), or shall draw his sword on him, shall be punished at the discretion of a general court martial.

28. Any officer or soldier, who shall upbraid another for refusing a challenge, shall himself be punished as a challenger, and all officers and soldiers are hereby discharged from any disgrace or opinion of disadvantage, which might arise from their having refused to accept of challenges, as they will only have acted in obedience to the laws, and done their duty as good soldiers, who subject themselves to discipline.

29. No suttler shall be permitted to sell any kind of liquors or victuals, or to keep their houses or shops open for the entertainment of soldiers after nine at night, or before the beating of the reveilies, or on Sundays during divine service or sermon, on the penalty of being dismissed from all future suttling.

30. All officers commanding in the field, forts, barracks, or garrisons of the United States, are required to see that the persons permitted to suttle shall supply the soldiers with good and wholesome provisions, or other articles, at a reasonable price, as they shall be answerable for their neglect.

31. No officer commanding in any garrison, fort, or barrack, shall exact exorbitant prices for houses or stalls let out to suttlers, or connive at the like exactions in others; nor by his own authority, and for his private advantage, lay any duty or imposition on, or be interested in, the sale of any victuals, liquors, or other necessaries of life, brought into the garrison, fort, or barrack, for the use of the soldiers, on the penalty of being discharged from the service.

32. Every officer commanding in quarters, garrisons, or on march, shall keep good order, and to the utmost of his power redress all abuses or disorders committed by any officer or soldier under his command; if on complaint made to him of officers or soldiers beating, or otherwise ill treating, any person, of disturbing fairs or markets, or of committing any riot, he shall refuse or omit to see justice done to the offenders, and reparation made to the party injured, as far as part of the offender's pay shall enable him, shall, on proof thereof, be cashiered, or otherwise punished, as a general court martial shall direct.

33. When any commissioned officer or soldier shall be accused of a capital crime, or of having used violence, or committed any offence against the persons or property of any citizen of the United States, such as is punishable by the known laws of the land, the commanding officer of every regiment, troop, or company, to which the person, so accused, shall belong, are required, on application duly made in behalf of the party injured, to use their utmost endeavour to deliver over such accused person to the civil magistrate, and likewise to aid and assist the officers of justice in securing the person so accused, in order to bring him to trial. If any commanding officer wilfully neglect, or refuse, on such application, to deliver over such accused person, to the civil magistrate, or to aid and assist the officers of justice in apprehending such person, the officer so offending shall be cashiered.

34. If any officer think himself wronged by his colonel or the commanding officer of the regiment, and shall, on due application being made, be refused redress, he may complain to the general, commanding in the state or territory where such regiment shall be stationed, in order to obtain justice; who is required to examine into the complaint, and take measures for redressing the wrong complained of, and transmit as soon as possible, to the department of war, a true state of such complaint, with the proceedings had thereon.

35. If any inferior officer or soldier think himself wronged by his captain, or officer, he is to complain to the commanding officer of the regiment, who is required to summon a regimental court martial, for doing justice to the complainant; from which regimental court martial either party may, if he think himself still aggrieved, appeal to a general court martial. But if, on a second hearing, the appeal shall appear vexatious and groundless, the person, so appealing, shall be punished at the discretion of the said court martial.

36. Any commissioned officer, store-keeper, or commissary, convicted at a general court martial of having sold, without proper order, embezzled, misapplied, or wilfully, or through neglect, suffered any of the provisions, forage, arms, clothing, ammunition, or other military stores, belonging to the United States, to be spoiled, or damaged, shall, at his own expence, make good the loss, or damage, and shall, moreover, forfeit all his pay, and be dismissed from the service.

37. Any non commissioned officer, or soldier, who shall be convicted, at a regimental court martial, of having sold, or designedly, or through neglect, wasted the ammunition delivered out to him, to be

employed in the service of the United States, shall be punished at the discretion of such court.

38. Every non commissioned officer or soldier, convicted before a court martial of having sold, lost, or spoiled, through neglect, his horse, arms, clothes, or accoutrements, shall undergo such weekly stoppages (not exceeding the half of his pay) as such court martial shall judge sufficient, for repairing the loss or damage; and shall suffer confinement or such corporal punishment as his crime shall deserve.

39. Every officer convicted before a court martial of having embezzled or misapplied any money, entrusted to him for the payment of the men under his command, or for enlisting men into the service, or for other purposes, if a commissioned officer, shall be cashiered, and compelled to refund the money; if a non commissioned officer, shall be reduced to the ranks, be put under stoppages till the money be made good, and suffer such corporal punishment as such court martial shall direct.

40. Every captain of a troop, or company, is charged with the arms, accoutrements, ammunition, clothing, or other warlike stores belonging to the troop, under his command, for which he is to answer to his colonel, in case of their being lost, spoiled, or damaged, not by unavoidable accidents, or on actual service.

41. All non commissioned officers and soldiers, found one mile from the camp, without leave, in writing, from their commanding officer, shall suffer such punishment as a court martial shall impose.

42. No officer, or soldier, shall be out of his quarters, garrison, or camp, without leave from his superior officer, on penalty of being punished by sentence of a court martial.

43. Every non commissioned officer and soldier shall retire to his quarters or tent, at the beating of the retreat; in default of which he shall be punished according to the nature of his offence.

44. No officer, non commissioned officer, or soldier, shall fail in repairing, at the time fixed, to the place of parade, of exercise, or other rendezvous, appointed by his commanding officer, if not prevented by sickness, or some other evident necessity; or shall go from the said place of rendezvous, without leave from his commanding officer, before he shall be regularly dismissed or relieved, on penalty of being punished by sentence of a court martial.

45. Any commissioned officer found drunk on his guard, party, or other duty, shall be cashiered. Any non-commissioned officer or soldier so offending shall suffer such corporal punishment as a court martial may impose.

46. Any centinel found sleeping on his post, or shall leave it before he shall be regularly relieved, shall suffer death, or such other punishment as a court martial may impose.

47. No soldier shall hire another to do his duty for him, or be excused from duty, but in case of sickness, disability, or leave of absence; and every soldier found guilty of hiring his duty, as also the party so hired, shall be punished at the discretion of a regimental court martial.

48. And every non commissioned officer conniving at such hiring of duty, shall be reduced; and every commissioned officer, knowing and allowing such practices, shall be punished by the judgment of a general court martial.

49. Any officer, who, by discharging fire arms, drawing swords, beating drums, or by any means whatever, shall occasion false alarms in camp, garrison, or quarters, shall suffer death, or such punishment as a general court martial may inflict.

50. Any officer or soldier, who shall, without urgent necessity, or without the leave of his superior officer, quit his guard, platoon, or division, shall be punished according to the nature of his offence, by the sentence of a court martial.

51. No officer or soldier shall do violence to any person who brings provisions or other necessaries to the camp, garrison, or quarters, on pain of death, or such punishment as a court martial shall direct.

52. Any officer or soldier, who shall misbehave himself before the enemy, run away, or shamefully abandon any fort, post, or guard, which he may be commanded to defend, or speak words inducing others to do the like; or cast away his arms and ammunition, or quit his post or colours to plunder and pillage, being duly convicted, shall suffer death, or such punishment as a general court martial may assign.

53. Any person belonging to the armies of the United States, who shall make known the watch word to any person who is not entitled to receive it, according to the rules of war, or shall give a parole or watch word, different from what he received, shall suffer death, or such punishment as shall be ordered by the sentence of a general court martial.

54. All officers and soldiers are to behave themselves orderly in quarters, and on their march; and whoever commits any waste or spoil, either in walks of trees, parks, warrens, fish ponds, houses, or gardens, cornfields, enclosures of meadows, or maliciously destroys any property whatever, belonging to the inhabitants of the United States, unless by order of the then commander in chief of the armies of the United States, shall (besides such penalties as they are liable to by law) be punished according to the nature and degree of the offence, by the judgment of a regimental or general court martial.

55. Whoever, belonging to the armies of the United States, employed in foreign parts, shall force a safe guard, shall suffer death.

56. Whoever shall relieve the enemy with money, victuals, or ammunition, or shall knowingly harbour or protect an enemy, shall suffer death, or such punishment as shall be ordered by a court martial.

57. Whoever shall be convicted of holding correspondence with or giving intelligence to the enemy, either directly or indirectly, shall suffer death, or such punishment as shall be ordered by a court martial.

58. All public stores taken in the enemy's camp, towns, forts, or magazines, whether artillery, ammunition, clothing, forage, or provisions,

shall be secured for the service of the United States; for the neglect of which the commanding officer must be answerable.

59. If any commander of any garrison, fortress, or post, shall be compelled by the officers and soldiers under his command to give it up to the enemy, or to abandon it, the commissioned officers, non commissioned officers, or soldiers, convicted of having so offended, shall suffer death, or such punishment as a court martial may impose.

60. All suttlers and retainers to the camp, and all persons whatever, serving with the armies of the United States in the field, though not enlisted soldiers, are subject to orders, according to the rules of war.

61. Officers having brevets, or commissions, of a prior date to those of the regiment in which they serve, may take place in courts martial and on detachments, when composed of different corps, according to the ranks given them in their brevets, or dates of their former commissions; but in the regiment, troop, or company, to which such officers belong, they shall do duty and take rank, both in courts martial and on detachments, which shall be composed only of their own corps, according to the commissions by which they are mustered in the said corps.

62. If on marches, guards, or in quarters, different corps of the army shall happen to join, or do duty together, the officer highest in rank of the line of the army, marine corps, or militia, by commission there, on duty, or in quarters, shall command the whole, and give orders for what is needful to the service, unless otherwise specially directed by the president, according to the nature of the case.

63. The functions of the engineers being generally confined to the most elevated branch of military science, they cannot assume, nor be ordered on any duty beyond the line of their immediate profession, except by the special order of the president; but must receive every mark of respect, to which their rank in the army may entitle them, and may be transferred, at the discretion of the president, from one corps to another, regard being paid to rank.

64. General courts martial may consist of any number of commissioned officers, from five to thirteen, inclusively, but they shall not consist of less than thirteen, where that number can be convened without manifest injury to the service.

65. Any general officer commanding an army, or colonel commanding a separate department, may appoint general courts martial, when necessary. But no sentence of a court martial shall be carried into execution till after the whole proceedings shall have been laid before the officer ordering the same, or the officer commanding the troops for the time being; neither shall any sentence of a general court martial, in time of peace, extending to the loss of life, or the dismission of a commissioned officer, or which shall, either in time of peace or war, respect a general officer, be carried into execution, till after the whole proceedings have been transmitted to the secretary of war, to be laid before the president, for his confirmation or disapproval, and orders in the case. All other sentences may be confirmed and executed by the officer ordering the court to assemble, or the commanding officer, for the time being.

66. Every officer commanding a regiment, or corps, may appoint, for his own regiment, or corps, courts martial, to consist of three commissioned officers, for the trial and punishment of offences, not capital, and decide on their sentences. For the same purpose, all officers, commanding any of the garrisons, forts, barracks, or other places, where the troops consist of different corps, may assemble courts martial, to consist of three commissioned officers, and decide on their sentences.

67. No garrison, or regimental court martial shall have the power to try capital cases, or commissioned officers; neither shall they inflict a fine exceeding one month's pay, nor imprison, nor put to hard labour, any non commissioned officer or soldier, for a longer time than one month.

68. Whenever it may be found convenient and necessary to the public service, the officers of the marines shall be associated with the officers of the land forces, for the purpose of holding courts martial and trying offenders belonging to either; and in such cases the orders of the senior officer of either corps, who may be present and duly authorized, shall be received and obeyed.

69. The judge advocate, or some person deputed by him, or by the general or officer commanding the army, detachment, or garrison, shall prosecute in the name of the United States, but shall so far consider himself as counsel for the prisoner, after the prisoner shall have made his plea, as to object to any leading question to any of the witnesses, or any question to the prisoner, the answer to which might tend to criminate himself; and administer to each member of the court, before they proceed on any trial, the following oath, which shall also be taken by all members of the regimental and garrison courts martial:

"You, A. B., do swear that you will well and truly try and determine, according to evidence, the matter now before you, between the United States of America and the prisoner to be tried; and that you will duly administer justice, according to the provisions of "An act establishing rules and articles for the government of the armies of the United States," without partiality, favour, or affection: and if any doubt shall arise, not explained by said articles, according to your conscience, the best of your understanding, and the custom of war in like cases: and you do further swear, that you will not divulge the sentence of the court until it shall be published by the proper authority: neither will you disclose or discover the vote or opinion of any particular member of the court martial, unless required to give evidence thereof as a witness, by a court of justice, in a due course of law. *So help you God.*"

And, as soon as the oath shall be administered to the members, the president of the court shall administer to the judge advocate, or person officiating as such, an oath in the following words:

"You, A. B., do swear, that you will not disclose or discover the vote or opinion of any particular member of the court martial, unless required to give evidence thereof as a witness, by a court of justice in due course of law; nor divulge the sentence of the court to any but

the proper authority, until it shall be duly disclosed by the same. *So help you God.*

70. When a prisoner arraigned before a general court martial shall, from obstinacy and deliberate design, stand mute or answer foreign to the purpose, the court may proceed to trial and judgment as if the prisoner had regularly pleaded not guilty.

71. When a member shall be challenged by a prisoner, he must state his cause of challenge, of which the court shall, after due deliberation, determine the validity, and decide accordingly: and no challenge to more than one member at a time shall be received by the court.

72. All the members of a court martial must behave with decency and calmness; and, in giving their votes, must begin with the youngest in commission.

73. All persons who give evidence before a court martial, must be examined on oath or affirmation in the following form:

"You swear (or affirm) the evidence you shall give in the cause now in hearing, shall be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. *So help you God.*"

74. On the trial of cases not capital, before courts martial, the deposition of witnesses not in the line or staff of the army, may be taken before some justice of the peace, and read in evidence: provided the prosecutor and the person accused are present at taking the same, or are duly notified thereof.

75. No officer shall be tried but by a general court martial, nor by officers of an inferior rank, if it can be avoided: nor shall any proceedings take place, except between eight in the morning and three in the afternoon, except in cases which, in the opinion of the officer appointing the court martial, require immediate attention.

76. No person shall use any menacing words, signs, or gestures, in presence of a court martial, or shall cause any disorder or riot, or disturb their proceedings, on penalty of being punished, at the discretion of the said court martial.

77. Whenever any officer shall be charged with a crime, he shall be arrested and confined in his barracks, quarters, or tent, and deprived of his sword, by the commanding officer. And any officer who shall leave his confinement before he shall be set at liberty by his commanding officer, or by a superior officer, shall be cashiered.

78. Non commissioned officers and soldiers, charged with crimes, shall be confined, till tried by a court martial, or released by proper authority.

79 No officer or soldier, put in arrest, shall continue in confinement more than eight days, or till a court martial can be assembled.

80. No officer commanding a guard, or provost marshal, shall refuse to receive or keep any prisoner committed to his charge by an officer belonging to the forces of the United States; provided the officer committing shall, at the same time, deliver an account in writing, signed by himself, of the crime with which the prisoner is charged.

81. No officer commanding a guard, or provost marshal, shall release any person committed to his charge, without proper authority, nor

suffer any person to escape, on penalty of being punished by the sentence of a court martial.

82. Every officer or provost marshal, to whose charge prisoners shall be committed, shall, within twenty-four hours after such commitment, or as soon as he shall be relieved from his guard, make report in writing, to the commanding officer, of their names, their crimes, and the names of the officers who committed them, on penalty of being punished for disobedience or neglect, at the discretion of a court martial.

83. Any commissioned officer convicted before a general court martial of conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman, shall be dismissed the service.

84. Where a court martial think proper to sentence a commissioned officer to be suspended from command, they shall have power also to suspend his pay and emoluments for the same time.

85. Where a commissioned officer is cashiered for cowardice or fraud, the sentence shall enjoin that the crime, name, and place of abode and punishment of the delinquent, be published in the newspapers in and about the camp, and of the particular state from which the offender came, or where he usually resides, after which it shall be deemed scandalous for an officer to associate with him.

86. The commanding officer of any post or detachment, in which there shall not be the number of officers required to form a general court martial, shall, in cases which require the cognizance of such a court, report to the commanding officer of the department, who shall order a court to be assembled at the nearest post or detachment, and the party accused, with necessary witnesses, to be transported to the place where the court shall be so assembled.

87. No person shall be sentenced to death, but by the concurrence of two thirds of the members of a general court martial, nor except in cases herein expressly mentioned; nor shall more than fifty lashes be inflicted on any offender, at the discretion of a court martial; and no officer, non commissioned officer, soldier, or follower of the army, shall be tried a second time for the same offence.

88. No person shall be tried and punished by a general court martial for any offence committed more than two years before the issuing of the order for such trial, unless the person, by reason of his absence, or some other manifest impediment, shall not have been amenable to justice within that period.

89. Every officer authorized to order a general court martial, shall have power to pardon or mitigate any punishment ordered by such court, except the sentence of death, or of cashiering an officer; which, in the cases where he has authority (by article 65) to carry them into execution, he may suspend, till the pleasure of the president of the United States be known; which suspension, together with copies of the proceedings of the court martial, the said officer shall immediately transmit to the president, for his determination. And the colonel or commanding officer of the regiment or garrison, where any regimental or garrison court martial shall be held, may pardon or mitigate any punishment ordered by such court to be inflicted.

90. Every judge advocate, or person officiating as such, at any general court martial, shall transmit, with as much expedition as distance of place can admit, the original proceedings and sentence of such court martial, to the secretary of war, which shall be carefully kept in the office of the secretary, that the persons entitled thereto may be enabled, on application, to obtain copies thereof.

The party tried by any general court martial shall, on demand made by himself or by any person in his behalf, be entitled to a copy of the sentence and proceedings of such court martial.

91. Where the general or commanding officer orders a court of inquiry to examine into the nature of any transaction, accusation, or imputation against any officer or soldier, the court shall consist of one or more officers, not exceeding three, and a judge advocate, or other suitable person as recorder, to reduce the proceedings and evidence to writing, all of whom shall be sworn to the faithful performance of their duty. This court shall have the same power to summon witnesses as a court martial, and to examine them on oath. But they shall not give their opinion on the merits of the case, unless specially required. The accused shall also be permitted to cross examine and interrogate the witnesses, so as to investigate fully the circumstances in question.

92. The proceedings of a court of inquiry must be authenticated by the signature of the recorder and the president, and delivered to the commanding officer: and the said proceedings may be admitted as evidence by a court martial, in cases not capital, or extending to the dismission of an officer, provided oral testimony cannot be obtained. But as courts of enquiry may be perverted to dishonorable purposes, and may be considered as engines of destruction to military merit, in the hands of weak and envious commandants, they are hereby prohibited, unless directed by the president of the United States, or demanded by the accused.

93. The judge advocate, or recorder, shall administer to the members the following oath:

"You shall well and truly examine and inquire, according to your evidence, into the matter now before you, without partiality, favour, affection, prejudice, or hope of reward. *So help you God.*"

After which the president shall administer to the judge advocate, or recorder, the following oath:

"You, A. B., do swear that you will, according to your best abilities, accurately and impartially record the proceedings of the court, and the evidence to be given in the case in hearing. *So help you God.*"

The witnesses shall take the same oath as witnesses sworn before a court martial.

94. When any commissioned officer shall die or be killed in the service of the United States, the major of the regiment, or the officer doing the major's duty in his absence, or, in any post or garrison, the second officer in command, or the assistant military agent, shall immediately secure all his effects or equipage, then in camp or quarters, and shall make an inventory thereof, and forthwith transmit the same

to the office of the department of war, that his executors or administrators may receive the same.

95. When any non commissioned officer, or soldier, shall die, or be killed in the service of the United States, the commanding officer of the troop, or company, shall, in the presence of two other commissioned officers, take an account of what effects he died possessed of, above his arms and accoutrements, and transmit the same to the office of the department of war; which effects are to be accounted for, and paid to the representatives of such deceased non commissioned officer or soldier. And if any of the officers, so authorized to take care of the effects of deceased officers and soldiers, should, before they have accounted to their representatives for the same, have occasion to leave the regiment, or post, by preferment, or otherwise, they shall, before they quit the same, deposit in the hands of the commanding officer, or of the assistant military agent, all the effects of such deceased non commissioned officers and soldiers, that the same may be secured for, and paid to, their respective representatives.

96. All officers, conducters, gunners, matrosses, drivers, or other persons receiving pay, in the service of the artillery, or corps of engineers of the United States, shall be governed by the aforesaid rules, and shall be subject to be tried by courts martial, in like manner with the officers and soldiers of the other troops in the service of the United States.

97. The officers and soldiers of any troops, whether militia or others, being mustered and in pay of the United States, shall, at all times, and in all places, when joined, or acting in conjunction with the regular forces of the United States, be governed by these rules and articles of war, and shall be subject to be tried by courts martial, in like manner with the officers and soldiers in the regular forces, save only that such courts martial shall be composed entirely of militia officers.

98. All officers serving by commission of any particular state, shall, on all detachments, courts martial, or other duty, wherein they may be employed in conjunction with the regular forces of the United States, take rank next after all officers of the like grade in the regular forces, notwithstanding the commissions of such militia or state officers may be elder than the commissions of the officers of the regular forces of the United States.

99. All crimes not capital, and all disorders and neglects which officers and soldiers may be guilty of, to the prejudice of good order and military discipline, though not mentioned in the foregoing articles, are to be taken cognizance of by a general or regimental court martial, according to the nature and degree of the offence, and be punished at their discretion.

100. The president shall have power to prescribe the uniform of the army.

101. The foregoing articles are to be read and published once in every six months, to every garrison, regiment, troop, or company, in the service of the United States, and are to be duly observed and obeyed by all officers and soldiers in the service.

In time of war, all persons not citizens of, or owing allegiance to the United States of America, who shall be found lurking as spies, in or about the fortifications or encampments of the armies of the United States, or any of them, shall suffer death, according to the law and usage of nations, by sentence of a general court martial.

XXI. The bond heretofore given, or hereafter given by the marshal of districts for the faithful performance of the duties of his office, is ordered by this act to be filed and recorded in the office of the clerk of the district court or circuit court, within the district for which such marshal is appointed, and copies certified by the clerk, under the seal of the said court, are declared to be competent evidence in any court of justice.

In case of the breach of the condition of any such bond, any person injured is allowed to institute a suit on such bond, and to recover damages, legally assessed, with costs of suit; for which execution may issue for such party in due form, and if such party shall fail to recover in the suit, judgment shall be rendered and execution issue for costs in favour of the defendant against the other party, and the United States shall in no case be liable for the same.

The said bonds, after any judgment rendered thereon, must remain as a security, for the benefit of any person injured by breach of the condition of the same, till the whole penalty has been recovered.

All suits on marshal's bonds, if the right of action has already accrued, shall be commenced and prosecuted within three years after the tenth of April, 1806. And all such suits, in case the right of action shall accrue hereafter, shall be commenced and prosecuted within six years after the said right of action has accrued; saving the rights of infants, *feme coverts*, and persons *non compos mentis*, so that they sue within three years after their disabilities are removed.

XXII. Foreign gold and silver coins are allowed by this act to pass current as money within the United States, and be a legal tender for the payment of all debts and demands, at the following rates:

The gold coins of Great Britain and Portugal, of their present standard, at the rate of one hundred cents for every twenty-seven grains of the actual weight; the gold coins of France, Spain, and the dominions of Spain, of their present standard, at the rate of one hundred cents for every twenty-seven grains and two-fifths of a grain, of the actual weight. Spanish milled dollars, at the rate of one hundred cents for each, the actual weight whereof shall not be less than seventeen pennyweights and seven grains, and in proportion for the parts of a dollar. Crowns of France at the rate of one hundred and ten cents for each crown, the actual weight whereof shall not be less than eighteen pennyweights and seventeen grains, and in proportion for the parts of a crown. The secretary of the treasury is required to cause assays of the foreign gold and silver coins made current by this act to be had at the mint of the United States, at least once in every year, and to make report of the result thereof to congress, for the purpose of enabling them to make such alterations in this act, as may become requisite, from the real standard value of such foreign coins. And the secretary of the treasury is to cause assays of the foreign gold and

silver coins made current by this act, which shall issue subsequently to this act, and shall circulate in the United States, to be had at the mint at least once in every year, and to make report of the result to congress, for the purpose of enabling congress to make such coins current, if they shall deem proper, at their real standard value.

The first section of the act regulating foreign coins, and for other purposes, passed the ninth day of February, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three, is repealed. And the operation of the second section of the same act is suspended during three years from the making of this act.

XXIII. The officers of the senate and house of representatives are granted by this act, after the thirty-first of March, 1806, the following sums: the secretary of the senate, and clerk of the house of representatives, two thousand dollars, each, their principal clerks one thousand three hundred dollars, each; and each of their engrossing clerks one thousand dollars, per annum.

The serjeant at arms of the senate, who also performs the duty of a door-keeper, the serjeant at arms, and the door-keeper of the house of representatives, are allowed nine hundred and fifty dollars per annum, each; and the assistant door-keeper of the senate, and the assistant door-keeper of the house of representatives, nine hundred dollars per annum, each.

Any appropriation made by the senate, or house of representatives, out of the contingent fund of either house, towards the compensation of any of their officers, are considered as a part of the salary allowed by this act.

XXIV. The secretary of the treasury is directed by this act to cause the coast of North Carolina to be correctly surveyed, between cape Hatteras and cape Fear; together with the shoals lying off and between these respective capes, or head lands, and to report at the next session of congress on the practicability of erecting a light house, lighted beacon, or buoy, on or near the extreme point of these shoals, or either of them. And five thousand dollars are appropriated for defraying any expence incurred in making such survey.

XXV. Any commissioned or non commissioned officer, musician, soldier, marine, or seaman, disabled in the actual service of the United States, while in the line of his duty, by known wounds received during the revolutionary war, and who did not desert the service; or who, in consequence of disability as aforesaid, resigned his commission or took a discharge; or who, after incurring disability was taken captive by the enemy, and remained either in captivity or on parole, till the close of the revolutionary war; or who, in consequence of known wounds received therein, had become unable to procure subsistence by manual labour; whether such officer, musician, soldier, marine, or seaman, served as a volunteer, in any proper service against the common enemy, or belonged to a detachment of the militia, which served against the common enemy, or to the regular forces of the United States, or of any particular state, he is directed by this act, on proving his claim, to be placed on the pension list of the United States, during

life, or the continuance of such disability, and is entitled to receive such sum as shall be found just and proper, by the testimony produced in the manner after mentioned.

In proving such claim, all evidence shall be taken on oath or affirmation, before the judge of the district, or one of the judges of the territory in which such claimant resides, or before some person specially authorized by commission from the judge.

Decisive disability, the effect of a known wound, received while in the actual service, during the revolutionary war, must be proved by the affidavit of the commanding officer of the regiment, corps, company, or vessel, in which the claimant served; or of two other credible witnesses to the same effect, setting forth the time when, and place where, such known wound were received; and particularly describing the same.

The nature of such disability, and in what degree it prevents the claimant from obtaining his subsistence, must be proved by the affidavit of some reputable physician or surgeon, stating his opinion either from his own knowledge and acquaintance with the claimant, or from an examination of such claimant on oath or affirmation; which, when necessary for that purpose, shall be administered to the claimant by the judge or commissioner. And the physician or surgeon, in his affidavit, shall particularly describe the wound whence the disability appears to be derived.

Every claimant must prove, by at least one credible witness, that he continued in service during the whole time for which he was detached, or for which he engaged, unless he was discharged, or left the service in consequence of some new modelling or disorder in the army, or in consequence of his disability resigned his commission; or was after his disability in captivity or on parole, till the close of the revolutionary war. And in the same manner must prove his mode of life and employment since he left the service, and the place where he has since resided, and his place of residence at the time of taking such testimony.

Every claimant shall by his affidavit give satisfactory reasons why he did not make application for a pension before, and that he is not on the pension list of any state; and the judge or commissioner shall certify in writing, his opinion of the credibility of the witnesses, whose affidavits he shall take, in all those cases, where by this act it is said the proof shall be made by a credible witness or witnesses. And, also, that the examining physician or surgeon is reputable in his profession.

The said judge or commissioner shall transmit a list of such claims, accompanied by the evidence, and proceedings thereon, noting particularly the day on which the testimony was closed before him, to the secretary at war, that the same may be compared with muster rolls, or other documents in his office: and the secretary shall make a statement of all such cases, which, together with all the testimony, he shall from time to time transmit to congress, with such remarks as he may think proper, that congress may be enabled to place such claimants on the pension list as shall be found entitled to the privilege.

And the judge or commissioner shall permit each claimant to take a transcript of the evidence and proceedings respecting his claim, if he desire it, and to certify the same to be correct.

Every pension, or increase thereof, by virtue of this act, shall commence on the day when the claimant shall complete his testimony, before the authority proper to take the same.

An increase of pension may be allowed to persons, already placed on the pension list of the United States, for disabilities caused by known wounds received during the revolutionary war, in all cases where justice shall require the same: provided the increase, when added to the pension formerly received, shall not exceed a full pension.

Every invalid making application for this purpose, shall be examined by two reputable physicians or surgeons, to be authorized by commission from the judge of the district, where such invalid resides; who shall report in writing, on oath or affirmation, their opinion of the nature of the applicant's disability, and in what degree it prevents him from obtaining a subsistence by manual labour, which report shall be transmitted by said physicians or surgeons to the secretary for the department of war; who shall compare the same with the documents in his office, and shall make a statement of all such cases, which, together with the original report, he shall from time to time transmit to congress, with such remarks as he may think proper, that they may be enabled to do justice to such pensioners.

A full pension given by this act to a commissioned officer, shall be one half of the monthly pay legally allowed, at the time of incurring his disability, to his grade in the forces of the United States; and the proportions, less than a full pension, shall be the correspondent proportions of the said half pay; and a full pension to a non commissioned officer, musician, soldier, marine, or seaman, shall be five dollars a month, and the proportions less than a full pension shall be the like proportions of five dollars a month; but no pension of a commissioned officer shall be calculated at a higher rate than the half pay of a lieutenant-colonel.

The pensions, or increase thereof, allowed by this act, shall be paid as pensions to invalids, heretofore placed on the pension list, are now paid, and under such restrictions as are prescribed by law.

No transfer, or mortgage of the whole or any part of the pension, payable to any non commissioned officer, musician, soldier, marine, or seaman, before the same becomes due, shall be valid. And every person claiming such pension under power of attorney or substitution, shall make oath before some magistrate, a copy of which, attested by the magistrate, shall be lodged with the person who pays said pension; that such power or substitution is not given by reason of any transfer of such pension, or part thereof. And any person who shall swear or affirm falsely in the premises, and be thereof convicted, shall suffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury.

This act continues in force only six years after the tenth of April 1806.

XXVI. The secretary of war is by this act authorized to issue mi-

litary land warrants, to such persons as shall, before the first of March, 1808, produce satisfactory evidence of the validity of their claims: which warrants, with those heretofore issued, and not yet satisfied, may be located in the names of their holders or proprietors, at any time prior to the first day of October, 1808, on any unlocated parts of the fifty quarter townships. and the fractional quarter townships, reserved by law, for original holders of military land warrants.

The surveyor general, under the direction of the secretary of the treasury, is required to cause to be surveyed so much of the fifty quarter townships, and the fractional quarter townships aforesaid, as have been, or hereafter may be located according to law, in conformity with the locations made on the plats of the said quarter townships; provided the whole expence of surveying the same do not exceed three dollars for every mile actually surveyed.

XXVII. This act orders to be paid to Gilbert C. Russell, late a captain of a company of mounted infantry, of the state of Tennessee, six hundred and seventeen dollars and ninety-five cents, for so much by him expended to the use of the United States, for provision and forage, supplied by him, for his men and horses, and for ferriages paid, on a tour of duty from the state of Tennessee to the Natchez; performed under the order of the president of the United States, by virtue of an act to enable the president of the United States to take possession of the territories ceded by France to the United States, by the treaty concluded at Paris on the thirtieth of April last, and for the temporary government thereof.

XXVIII. The operation of the sixth condition of the fifth section of the act to amend the act providing for the sale of the lands of the United States north-west of the Ohio, and above the mouth of Kentucky river, is suspended by this act till the first day of October next, in favour of such purchasers of lands under the said act, who shall exhibit satisfactory proof to the register and receiver of public monies in the respective districts where they reside, that they were actual settlers on the land so purchased, at the time of passing this act, April 15, 1806.

XXIX. This act prohibits the importation, after the fifteenth of November, 1806, from any place in Great Britain or Ireland, or in the colonies or dependencies of Great Britain, any goods, or merchandize, of the following kinds:

All articles of which leather is the material of chief value: of which silk is the material of chief value: of which hemp or flax is the material of chief value: and of which tin or brass is the material of chief value, tin in sheets excepted: woollen cloths whose invoice prices shall exceed five shillings sterling per square yard, woollen hosiery of all kinds, window glass, and all other manufactures of glass, silver, and plated wares, paper of every description, nails and spikes, hats, clothing ready made, millinery of all kinds, playing cards, beer, ale, and porter, and pictures and prints:

Nor shall it be lawful to import, from any foreign place whatever, any of the above mentioned goods, being the produce or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, or any of the colonies or dependencies of Great Britain; provided no articles which shall within fifteen months

after the eighteenth of April, 1806, be imported from any place beyond the Cape of Good Hope, on board any vessel cleared out before that day from any port within the United States or its territories, for the Cape of Good Hope, or any place beyond it, be subject to this prohibition.

Whenever any prohibited article shall, after the fifteenth of November, 1806, be imported, or shall, after the said day, be put on board any vessel, with intention of importing the same into the United States, all such articles, as well as all other articles on board the same vessel, belonging to the owner of such prohibited articles, shall be forfeited, and the owner shall moreover forfeit treble the value of such articles.

If any article, the importation of which is prohibited by this act, shall, after the said fifteenth of November, be put on board any vessel, with intention to import the same into the United States, and with the knowledge of the owner or master of such vessel, such vessel shall be forfeited, and the owner and master shall moreover each forfeit treble the value of such articles.

If any such prohibited article shall be on board any vessel, arriving after the said fifteenth of November in the United States, and shall be omitted in the manifest, report, or entry of the master, or person having the charge of such vessel, or be omitted in the entry of the goods by the owner, or consignee of such articles, or shall be imported, or landed, or attempted to be, without a permit, the same penalties shall be incurred and recovered as in the case of similar acts in relation to articles liable to duties on their importation into the United States.

Every officer of the customs shall have the like power to seize goods, imported contrary to this act, to keep the same in custody till it be ascertained whether the same have been forfeited or not, and to enter any vessel, building, or enclosure, for the purpose of searching for such goods, which he now has, in relation to goods subject to duty; and if any persons shall conceal or buy any goods, knowing them to be liable to seizure by this act, they shall, on conviction, forfeit double the value of the goods so concealed or purchased.

The following additions are made to the oath or affirmation taken by the masters or persons having the charge of vessels, after the fifteenth of November, "I further swear (or affirm) that there are not to the best of my knowledge and belief on board [insert the denomination and name of the vessel] any goods, wares, or merchandize, the importation of which into the United States, or the territories thereof, is prohibited by law: and I do further swear (or affirm) that if I shall hereafter discover or know of any such goods, wares, or merchandize on board the said vessel, or which shall have been imported in the same, I will immediately, and without delay, make due report thereof to the collector of the port of this district."

The following addition is likewise made after the said fifteenth of November, to the oath or affirmation taken by importers, consignees, or agents, at the time of entering goods. "I also swear (or affirm) that there are not to the best of my knowledge and belief amongst the said goods, wares, and merchandize, imported or consigned as aforesaid, any goods, wares, or merchandize, the importation of which into the

United States, or the territories thereof, is prohibited by law. And I do further swear (or affirm) that if I shall hereafter discover any such goods, wares, or merchandize, amongst the said goods, wares, and merchandize, imported or consigned as aforesaid, I will immediately, and without delay, report the same to the collector of this district.

All penalties and forfeitures arising under this act are to be sued for, recovered, distributed, and accounted for in the manner prescribed by the act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage: and such penalties and forfeitures may be examined, mitigated, or remitted in like manner, as is directed by the act to provide for mitigating or remitting the forfeitures, penalties and disabilities, accruing in certain cases therein mentioned.

XXX. The secretary of the treasury is required by this act to cause to be paid, at the the treasury of the United States, the amount of certain claims of citizens of the United States against the government of France, arising from the Bourdeaux embargo, in conformity with a certified list of liquidations, attested by the minister of the public treasury of France, and transmitted by the minister plenipotentiary of the United States at Paris, to the said secretary; which payments shall be made for such sums as are stated in the above mentioned list of liquidations, to such persons as the accounting officers of the treasury shall determine to be rightfully entitled to the same, and out of the monies heretofore appropriated for the purpose of discharging the claims of citizens of the United States against the government of France, the payment of which was assumed by the government of the United States, by virtue of the convention of the thirtieth of April, 1803.

XXXI. For the purpose of defining the limits of the vacant and unappropriated lands in the state of Tennessee, hereafter to be subject to the sole disposition of the United States, this act directs the following line to be established: beginning at the place where the eastern or main branch of Elk river intersects the southern boundary line of the state of Tennessee; thence running due north, till the said line intersects the northern or main branch of Duck river; thence down the waters of Duck river to the military boundary line, as established by the seventh section of an act of the state of North Carolina, for the relief of the officers and soldiers of the continental line, and for other purposes, passed in the year 1783; thence with the military boundary line, west to the place where it intersects the Tennessee river; thence down the waters of the river Tennessee, to the place where the same intersects the northern boundary line of the state of Tennessee.

On the senators and representatives from the state of Tennessee, by an instrument signed and sealed by them respectively, making known, that in pursuance of the power in them vested, by a law of the state of Tennessee, appointing agents to settle the dispute between this state and the United States, relative to the vacant and unappropriated lands within this state, and to procure the relinquishment of the claim of the United States to the same, and by a resolution of the senate and house of representatives of the said state of Tennessee, pass-

ed in the year 1802, as instructions therein; they agree, that all right which the state of Tennessee hath to the lands lying west and south of the line, herein before established within the limits of the state of Tennessee, shall thereafter for ever cease; and that the said lands shall remain at the sole disposition of the United States, and be exempted from every disposition or tax made under the authority of the state of Tennessee while the same remains the property of the United States, and for five years after the same shall be sold; which instrument shall be approved by the senate of the United States, and entered at large in their journal, and deposited in the office of the secretary of state. The United States thereupon cede to the state of Tennessee, all their right to the territory lying east and north of the line herein before established, within the limits of the state of Tennessee, subject to the same conditions as are contained in the act of the general assembly of the state of North Carolina, made for the purpose of ceding to the United States of America certain western lands therein described. And the state of Tennessee shall thereupon have as full power to issue grants of all lands lying east and north of the before described line, within the limits of the said state, as congress now have, or the state of Tennessee might have, by virtue of an act of the state of North Carolina, made to authorise the state of Tennessee to perfect titles to lands reserved to this state by the cession act, to which said act the assent of congress is hereby given, so far as is necessary to carry into effect the objects of this compact; subject to the following conditions:

1. All entries of lands, rights of location, and warrants of surveys, and all interfering locations, which might be removed by the aforesaid act of cession of the state of North Carolina, and which are good in law, and which were not actually located west and south of the herein before described line, before the twenty-fifth day of February, 1790, and all interfering grants which are good in law, and which have been located east and north of the said line, shall be located, and the titles thereto perfected, within the territory hereby ceded to the state of Tennessee.

2. That the state of Tennessee shall appropriate one hundred thousand acres, to be located in one entire tract, within the limits of the lands reserved to the Cherokee Indians, by an act of the state of North Carolina, for opening the land office for the redemption of specie and other certificates, and discharging the arrears due to the army, passed in the year 1783; and appropriate the said tract to the use of two colleges, one in east, and one in west Tennessee, to be established by the legislature thereof. And one hundred thousand acres in one tract within the limits last mentioned, for the use of academies; one in each county of the state, to be established by the legislature thereof; which said several tracts shall be located on lands to which the Indian title has been extinguished, and subject to the disposition of the legislature of the state, but shall not be granted or sold for less than two dollars per acre, and the proceeds of the sales of the said lands shall be vested in funds for the above mentioned uses for ever. And the state of Tennessee shall moreover, in issuing grants and per-

fecting titles, locate six hundred and forty acres to every six miles square in the territory hereby ceded, where existing claims will allow the same, which shall be appropriated for the use of schools for the instruction of children for ever: provided nothing contained in this act be construed to affect the Indian title, or to subject the United States to the expence of extinguishing the same: and provided also the lowest price of all lands granted or sold within the ceded territory be the same as shall be established by congress for the lands of the United States: and provided that the people residing in the said state, south of French Broad and Holston, and west of Big Pigeon rivers, provided for by the constitution of the state of Tennessee, shall be secured in their respective rights of occupancy and pre-emption, and shall receive titles for such quantities as they may respectively claim, including their improvements, not exceeding six hundred and forty acres each, nor exceeding the quantities they have heretofore claimed respectively, according to their conditional lines, where such have been established, at a price not less than one dollar per acre: and provided nothing in this act be construed to enable any person, till authorised by the legislature of the state of Tennessee, to locate any warrant issued under the authority of the state of North Carolina, within the limits of the lands reserved to the Cherokee Indians, by the fifth section of the act of the said state, made for opening the land office for the redemption of specie and other certificates, and discharging the arrears due to the army, passed in the year 1783.

If the territory by this act ceded to the state of Tennessee shall not contain a sufficient quantity of land fit for cultivation, including the lands within the limits reserved by the state of North Carolina to the Cherokee Indians, to perfect all existing legal claims charged thereon, by the conditions contained in this act of cession, congress will hereafter provide by law for perfecting such as cannot be located in the territory aforesaid, out of the lands lying west or south of the before described line.

XXXII. The president of the United States is authorized by this act, at any time during two years after the eighteenth of April, 1806, to require of the executives of the several states, to take effectual measures to organize, arm, and equip, according to law, and hold in readiness to march at a moment's warning, their respective proportions of one hundred thousand militia, officers included: to be apportioned by the president of the United States, by the militia returns of the last year, in cases where such returns were made, and in cases where such returns were not made the last year, by such other data as he shall judge equitable.

The president may authorize the executives of the several states to accept, as part of the said detachment, any corps of volunteers, who shall engage to continue in service six months after they arrive at the place of rendezvous.

The said detachment of militia and volunteers shall be officered out of the present militia officers, or others, at the option of the constitutional authority in each state; the president of the United States ap-

portioning the general officers among the respective states as he may deem proper.

The said detachments shall not be compelled to serve longer than six months after they arrive at the place of rendezvous: and, during the time of their service, they shall be entitled to the same pay, rations, and allowance for clothing, established by law, as the pay, rations, and allowance for clothing of the army of the United States.

The president of the United States is authorized to call into actual service any part, or the whole of the said detachment, when he shall judge the exigencies of the United States require it; if a part of the said detachment only shall be called into actual service, they shall be taken from such part, as the president in his discretion shall deem proper.

Two millions of dollars are appropriated for the pay and subsistence of such part of the said detachment as may be called into service.

An act directing a detachment from the militia of the United States, and for erecting certain arsenals, approved the third of March, 1803, is repealed.

XXXIII. For the expenditure of the civil list, in the year 1806, including the contingent expences of the several departments and officers; for the compensation of the several loan offices and their clerks, and for books and stationary for the same; for the payment of annuities and grants; for the support of the mint establishment; for the expences of intercourse with foreign nations; for the support of light houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers; for defraying the expences of surveying the public lands in the territories of Indiana and Missisippi; and for satisfying certain miscellaneous claims; the following sums are appropriated by this act:

To the members of the senate and house of representatives, their officers and attendants, estimated for a session of four months and a half continuance, two hundred thousand five hundred and eighty-five dollars.

For firewood, stationary, printing, and all other contingent expences of the two houses of congress, thirty-two thousand dollars.

For all contingent expences of the library, and librarian's allowance for the year 1806, four hundred and fifty dollars.

To the president and vice president of the United States, thirty thousand dollars.

To the secretary of state, clerks, and persons employed in that department, including twelve hundred dollars for compensation to his clerks, in addition to the sum allowed by the act of the second of March, 1799, twelve thousand five hundred and sixty dollars.

For the incidental and contingent expences of the said department, four thousand two hundred dollars.

For printing and distributing copies of the laws of the first session of the ninth congress, and printing the laws in newspapers, eight thousand two hundred and fifty dollars.

For special messengers charged with dispatches, two thousand dollars.

To the secretary of the treasury, clerks, and persons employed in his office, including those engaged on the business belonging to the late office of the commissioner of the revenue, twelve thousand three hundred dollars.

For the expence of translating of foreign languages, allowance to the person employed in receiving and transmitting passports and sea letters, stationary, and printing, one thousand dollars.

To the comptroller of the treasury, clerks, and persons employed in his office, twelve thousand nine hundred and seventy-seven dollars and eight cents.

For stationary, printing, and incidental and contingent expences of the comptroller's office, eight hundred dollars.

To the auditor of the treasury, clerks, and persons employed in his office, twelve thousand two hundred and twenty dollars and ninety-three cents.

For stationary, printing, and incidental and contingent expences in the office of the auditor of the treasury, five hundred dollars.

To the treasurer, clerks, and persons employed in his office, six thousand two hundred and twenty-seven dollars and forty-five cents.

For stationary, printing, and incidental and contingent expences in the treasurer's office, three hundred dollars.

To the register of the treasury, clerks, and persons employed in his office, sixteen thousand and fifty-two dollars.

For stationary and printing in the register's office, including books for the public stock, and for the arrangement of the marine papers, two thousand eight hundred dollars.

To the secretary of the commissioners of the sinking fund, two hundred and fifty dollars.

To the clerks employed for the purpose of making drafts of the several surveys of land in the territory of the United States, north-west of the river Ohio, and in keeping the books of the treasury in relation to the sales of lands at the several land offices, three thousand four hundred dollars.

For fuel and other contingent expences of the treasury department, four thousand dollars.

For the expences incident to the stating and printing the public accounts for the year 1806, one thousand two hundred dollars.

For purchasing books, maps, and charts for the use of the treasury department, four hundred dollars.

To a superintendent employed to secure the buildings and records of the treasury, during the year 1806, including the expence of two watchmen, and for the repair of two fire engines, buckets, lanthorns, and other incidental expences, one thousand five hundred dollars.

To the secretary of war, clerks, and persons employed in his office, eleven thousand two hundred and fifty dollars.

For fuel, stationary, printing, and other contingent expences of the office of the secretary of war, one thousand dollars.

To the accountant of the war department, clerks, and persons employed in his office, ten thousand nine hundred and ten dollars.

For contingent expences in the office of the accountant of the war department, one thousand dollars.

To clerks employed in the paymaster's office, one thousand eight hundred dollars.

For fuel in the said office, ninety dollars.

To the purveyor of public supplies, clerks, and persons employed in his office, including twelve hundred dollars for compensation to his clerks, in addition to the sum allowed by the act of the second day of March, 1799, and for stationary, store rent, and fuel, for the said office, four thousand six hundred dollars.

For expences incidental to the removal of the purveyor's office to Germantown, during the prevalence of the yellow fever in Philadelphia, in the year 1805, one hundred dollars.

To the secretary of the navy, clerks, and persons employed in his office, including seven hundred dollars, in addition to four thousand two hundred dollars allowed by the act of the second of March, 1799, nine thousand eight hundred and ten dollars.

For fuel, stationary, printing, and other contingent expences in the office of the secretary of the navy, two thousand dollars.

To the accountant of the navy, clerks, and persons employed in his office, including one thousand one hundred dollars for compensation to his clerks, in addition to the sum allowed by the act of the second of March, 1799, ten thousand four hundred and ten dollars.

For contingent expences in the office of the accountant of the navy, seven hundred and fifty dollars.

To the postmaster general, assistant postmaster general, clerks, and persons employed in the postmaster general's office, including four thousand five hundred and ninety-five dollars for compensation to his clerks, in addition to the sum allowed by the act of the second of March, 1799, thirteen thousand nine hundred and fifty-five dollars.

For fuel, candles, house rent for the messenger, stationary, chests, &c., exclusive of expences of prosecution, portmanteaus, mail locks, and other expences incident to the department, these being paid for by the postmaster general out of the funds of the office, two thousand five hundred dollars.

To the several loan officers, thirteen thousand two hundred and fifty dollars.

For expences incurred by removal of the loan office from New York, during the prevalence of the epidemic fever, in 1805, one hundred dollars.

For expences incurred by removal of the loan office from Philadelphia, during the prevalence of the epidemic fever, in 1805, one hundred dollars.

To the clerks of the several commissioners of loans, and an allowance to certain loan officers, in lieu of clerk hire, and to defray the authorized expences of the several loan offices, thirteen thousand dollars.

For clerk hire in the office of the commissioner of loans of the state of Pennsylvania, in consequence of the removal of the offices of the

treasury department, in the year 1800, to the permanent seat of government, two thousand dollars.

To the surveyor general, and the clerks employed by him, and for stationary and other contingencies of the surveyor general's office, three thousand two hundred dollars.

To the surveyor of the lands south of the state of Tennessee, clerk employed in his office, stationary and other contingencies, three thousand two hundred dollars.

To the officers of the mint:

The director, two thousand dollars;

The treasurer, one thousand two hundred dollars;

The assayer, one thousand five hundred dollars;

The chief coiner, one thousand five hundred dollars;

The melter and refiner, one thousand five hundred dollars;

The engraver, one thousand two hundred dollars;

One clerk, at seven hundred dollars;

And two, at five hundred dollars each;

For the wages of persons employed in the different branches of melting, coining, carpenter's, mill-wright's, and smith's-work, including the sum of eight hundred dollars per annum, allowed to an assistant coiner and die-forger, who also oversees the execution of the iron work, six thousand two hundred dollars.

For the repairs of furnaces, costs of rollers and screws, timber, bar iron, lead, steel, pot ash, and for all other contingencies of the mint, four thousand two hundred dollars.

To the governor, judges, and secretary of the territory of Orleans, including the sum of two thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars, for the salaries from the first of October to the thirty-first of December, 1804, fifteen thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars.

For incidental and contingent expences of the executive officers of the said territory, including eight hundred and fifty dollars, a deficiency in the appropriation for 1805, and for express hire and compensation of an Indian interpreter, three thousand seven hundred dollars.

To the governor, judges, and secretary of the Missisippi territory, five thousand nine hundred and fifty dollars.

For stationary, office rent, and other contingent expences in the said territory, and to make good a deficiency in the appropriations for 1804 and 1805, five hundred and eighty-two dollars and fifty cents.

To the governor, judges, and secretary of the Indiana territory, five thousand one hundred and fifty dollars.

For stationary, office rent, and other contingent expences in the said territory, three hundred and fifty dollars.

To the governors, judges, and secretary of the Michigan territory, including a deficiency of two thousand five hundred and seventy-five dollars, in the appropriation for the year 1805, for the support of the said government, seven thousand seven hundred and twenty-five dollars.

For stationary, office rent, and other contingent expences in the said territory, including six hundred and forty dollars, to defray simi-

lar expences and others attending the organization of the government in the year 1805, nine hundred and ninety dollars.

To the governor, judges, and secretary of the Louisiana territory, including a deficiency of two thousand five hundred and seventy-five dollars in the appropriation for the year 1805, for the support of the said government, seven thousand seven hundred and twenty-five dollars.

For stationary, office rent, and other contingent expences in the said territory, for the years 1805 and 1806, five hundred and twenty-five dollars.

For the discharge of such demands against the United States, on account of the civil department, not otherwise provided for, as shall have been admitted in a due course of settlement at the treasury, and which, according to usage, require payment in specie, two thousand dollars.

For additional compensation to the clerks of the several departments of state, treasury, war, and navy, and of the general post office, not exceeding for each department, respectively, fifteen per centum, in addition to the sums allowed by the act *to regulate and fix the compensation of clerks*, eleven thousand eight hundred and eighty-five dollars.

To the chief justice, associate judges, and district judges of the United States, including the chief justice and two associate judges of the district of Columbia; to the atorney general, and to the judge of the district of Orleans, including a deficiency in the appropriation for his compensation in the year 1804; fifty-six thousand four hundred dollars.

To the several district attornies of the United States, three thousand four hundred dollars.

To the marshals of the districts of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Kentucky, Ohio, East and West Tennessee, and Orleans, one thousand six hundred dollars.

For the expences of the supreme, circuit, and district courts of the United States, including the district of Columbia, and of jurors and witnesses, in aid of the funds arising from fines, forfeitures, and penalties, and likewise for defraying the expences of prosecution for offences against the United States, and for safe keeping of prisoners, forty thousand dollars.

For the payment of pensions granted by the late government, nine hundred dollars.

For the payment of an annuity granted to the children of the late colonel John Harding, and major Alexander Trueman, by an act of congress, passed the fourteenth of May, 1800, six hundred dollars.

For the payment of the annual allowance to the invalid pensioners of the United States, from the fifth of March, 1806, to the fourth of March, 1807, ninety-eight thousand dollars.

For the maintenance and support of light houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers, and stakeage of channels, bars, and shoals, and certain contingent expences, eighty-one thousand and eighty-eight dollars and two cents.

For the payment of a commission of two and a half per cent. to the commissioners who superintended the erection of public piers in the river Delaware, four hundred and forty-eight dollars and seventy-one cents.

For fixing buoys in Long Island sound, in addition to the sums heretofore appropriated for that object, one thousand three hundred and forty-two dollars and thirty-four cents.

For expences of intercourse with foreign nations, thirty-nine thousand and fifty dollars.

For the expences of the intercourse between the United States and the Barbary powers, including the compensation of the consuls at the several Barbary powers, forty-nine thousand five hundred dollars.

For the contingent expences of the intercourse with foreign nations, twenty-six thousand nine hundred and fifty dollars.

For the contingent expences of intercourse with the Barbary powers, fifty thousand dollars.

For defraying the expence of carrying into effect the sixth article of the British treaty, in addition to the sums heretofore appropriated for that purpose, seven thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars.

Towards completing the surveys in the state of Ohio, and in the Indiana and Missisippi territories, one hundred and twenty thousand dollars.

For the discharge of such miscellaneous claims against the United States, not otherwise provided for, but duly admitted at the treasury, and which, according to usage, require payment in specie, four thousand dollars.

For expences incident to the investigation of claims under the French convention of the thirtieth of April, 1803, in addition to the sums heretofore appropriated to that purpose, six thousand dollars.

For the relief and protection of distressed American seamen, seven thousand five hundred dollars.

For the salaries of the agents at London, Paris, and Madrid, for prosecuting claims in relation to captures, six thousand dollars.

For the amount admitted at the treasury as due, on the first of January, 1791, to the legal representatives of the late baron de Beaumarchais, for military stores furnished the United States during the late war, including interest on the same, a sum not exceeding seventy-nine thousand dollars.

For exploring the waters of the country ceded by the convention of the thirtieth of April, 1803, and establishing commerce with the Indian tribes inhabiting the same, five thousand dollars.

These sums are to be paid out of the fund of six hundred thousand dollars, reserved by an act making provision for the debt of the United States, and out of monies in the treasury not otherwise appropriated.

XXXIV. Every witness summoned to attend the trial of the impeachment of Samuel Chase, is allowed, by this act, for every day's attendance three dollars; and also for mileage at the rate of twelve and a half cents for every mile distance coming to the city of Wash-

ington, and returning to the usual place of residence of the witnesses, respectively.

The secretary of the senate must ascertain and certify the amount due to each witness for attendance and mileage; which certificate shall entitle the witness to receive from the treasury of the United States the amount certified to be due, unless otherwise ordered by the senate.

Six thousand dollars are appropriated to defray the expences incurred under this act.

XXXV. The second and fourth sections of an act, providing for a naval peace establishment, and for other purposes, are repealed by this act.

The president of the United States is authorized by this act to keep in actual service, in time of peace, as many of the frigates and other public armed vessels of the United States, as he pleases, and to cause the residue to be laid up in ordinary in convenient ports.

The public armed vessels of the United States, in actual service, in time of peace, shall be officered and manned, as the president of the United States shall direct; provided the officers do not exceed the following numbers and degrees; thirteen captains, nine masters commandant, seventy-two lieutenants, and one hundred and fifty midshipmen: but the said officers shall receive no more than half their monthly pay, while not in actual service. The whole number of able seamen, ordinary seamen, and boys shall not exceed nine hundred and twenty-five; but the president may appoint, for the several vessels in actual service, as many surgeons, surgeon's mates, sailing masters, chaplains, pursers, boatswains, gunners, sail-makers, and carpenters, as he pleases.

XXXVI. The circuit court for Washington county, in the district of Columbia, is directed, by this act, to commence on the first Monday in June, in each year, instead of the fourth Monday in July, as previously fixed; and the circuit court for Alexandria county, in said district, on the first Monday in July, instead of the fourth Monday in June; and the circuit court for Washington county, which then stood adjourned to the fourth Monday in July next, is adjourned to the first Monday in June, 1806; and the circuit court for Alexandria county is adjourned to the first Monday in July; and all process issued in the respective counties of Washington and Alexandria, in the said district, returnable to the fourth Mondays in June and July, or to any particular day in the first, second, or other succeeding weeks during the said terms, as heretofore established, is made returnable to the first Mondays in June and July, or to corresponding days in the first, second, or other succeeding weeks during the said terms, as by this law established; and all causes and proceedings, civil and criminal, depending before these courts, are continued to the said first Mondays in June and July, in the same manner as if the said proceedings had been regularly returned or continued to the said respective times appointed by this act for holding the said courts.

The provisions of the act for the relief of insolvent debtors within the district of Columbia are extended to any debtor who may have been, or hereafter shall be arrested and holden to bail in the said district,

and who at the time of his arrest shall have been a resident in the said district one year, next preceding his arrest.

XXXVII. Two thousand four hundred dollars are, by this act, to be applied, under the direction of the president of the United States, to the immediate and temporary relief of Hamet Caramalli, ex-bashaw of Tripoli.

XXXVIII. So much of the act passed on the twenty-fifth of March, 1804, further to protect the commerce and seamen of the United States against the Barbary powers, as is contained in the first section, is, by this act, continued in force till the end of the next session of congress.

XXXIX. Every person claiming a tract of land, by virtue of the second section of the act for adjusting claims to land in Orleans and Louisiana, and who had commenced an actual settlement prior to the first of October, 1800, and had continued actually to inhabit and cultivate the same, during three years from the time when such settlement commenced, and prior to the twentieth of December, 1803, is declared, by this act, to have made such settlement with the permission of the proper Spanish officer, though it may not be in his power to produce sufficient evidence of such permission.

Every person rightfully claiming a tract of land, not exceeding six hundred and forty acres, by virtue of the act before-mentioned, is confirmed in his claim, if otherwise embraced by the provisions of the said act, though the person under whom the claim originated was not, at the time when the same originated, above the age of twenty-one years: provided the land thus claimed had been for ten consecutive years, prior to the twentieth of December, 1803, quietly possessed, and actually inhabited and cultivated by such person or for his use.

The time fixed by the act before mentioned for delivering to the register of the proper land office notices in writing, and the written evidences of claims to land in the territory of Orleans, is by this act extended till the first of January, 1807; and persons delivering such notices and evidences are allowed the same benefits as if the same had been delivered prior to the first day of March, 1806, but the rights of those who neglect so doing within the time limited by this act are barred, in the same manner as had been provided by the fourth section of the former act, in relation to claims, notices, and written evidences which should not be delivered prior to the first day of March, 1806.

The registers of the land offices in the territory of Orleans are authorized by this act to appoint so many deputies, not exceeding one for each county, in their respective districts, as they may think necessary; who shall receive, enter, and file notices, and receive and record written evidences of claims to lands lying in the county, to them assigned, in the same manner as the register might do; and also, to transmit to the register the said notices and evidences, or such abstracts of the same, as the register, or commissioners, may direct; and generally to perform, in relation to such claims, whatever the said register directs. Persons having claims to land, may deliver the notices and evidences of the same, at their option, either to the register of the proper land office, or to his deputy, for the county in which such land lies; and the deputies are allowed the recording fees allowed to the register by

the former act, and in addition, or a compensation of five hundred dollars in full for all his services, one dollar for every claim filed, payable out of the monies appropriated for carrying into effect the former act.

The commissioners for ascertaining the rights of persons claiming lands in the territory of Orleans are given the same powers, and perform the same duties, in relation to the claims thus filed before the first day of January, 1807, as if notice of the same had been given before the first day of March, 1806, and as was provided by the former act, in relation to the claims therein described. Transcripts of the decisions of the said commissioners, and reports of the claims filed in conformity to this act, shall be made and transmitted, as was provided by the former act, in relation to the claims therein described. The commissioners are also directed to enquire into the claims which may arise from a right, or supposed right, to a double or additional concession on the back of grants heretofore made, or from grants heretofore made to minors, and not embraced by this act, or from grants made by the Spanish government, subsequent to the first of April, 1800, for lands actually settled and inhabited on the twentieth of December, 1803; and to make a special report thereon to the secretary of the treasury; which report shall be laid before congress at the ensuing session. And the lands embraced by such report are not to be otherwise disposed of, till congress shall decide thereon.

Each register, in addition to his other emoluments, is allowed five hundred dollars for services performed, under this act, prior to the first of January, 1807, and each commissioner is allowed six dollars a day, during his actual attendance, after the first of January, 1807, provided the whole compensation of any commissioner do not exceed two thousand dollars. The president of the United States may reduce, after the said first of January, the number of commissioners in either or both boards, to one or two persons, these to have the same powers vested in the board established by the former act. The clerk of each board is allowed fifteen hundred dollars a year; the translators six hundred dollars a year, and the agents employed by the secretary of the treasury fifteen hundred dollars a year, from the said first of January, to the time when each board shall be dissolved, provided one year's compensation only be thus allowed to each clerk, translator, and agent. The secretary of the treasury may at his pleasure discontinue either one or both of the agents.

The commissioners appointed for ascertaining the rights of persons claiming lands in the territories of Orleans and Louisiana are authorized, for the purpose of obtaining oral evidence, either in support of, or in opposition to claims, which evidence could not be given at the usual place of their sittings, without oppression to the parties or witnesses, to remove their sittings, or to send for that purpose one or more members of the board, to such place within their respective districts as they may think necessary: and each commissioner going for that purpose shall receive, additionally, six dollars for every twenty miles, going and returning; provided no commissioner receive in the whole, on that account, more than for the distance from the usual

place of the sittings of the board to the extreme settlements within his respective district.

Each board shall prepare the reports and transcripts, which by law they are directed to make to the secretary of the treasury, in conformity with such forms as he may prescribe; and they must, in all their proceedings, conform to the instructions of the secretary.

The surveyor of public lands, south of Tennessee, must appoint a principal deputy for each of the two land districts of the territory of Orleans, who must reside and keep an office in the said districts respectively, to execute, by themselves or by the other deputies, surveys authorized by law, or directed by the commissioners, to file and record all such surveys, to form, if practicable, connected drafts of the lands granted in the district, so as to exhibit the lands remaining vacant, and generally to perform, in conformity with the instructions of the surveyor of public lands, south of Tennessee, the legal duties of surveyor. Each principal deputy is allowed five hundred dollars a year, and the following fees: for examining and recording the surveys executed by any of the deputies, twenty-five cents for every mile of the boundary line of such survey; and for a certified copy of any plot of a survey in the office, twenty-five cents.

The president of the United States is authorized to appoint a receiver of public monies for the western district of the territory of Orleans, whose pay, fees, obligations, and duties, are to be the same with those of the receivers of public monies in the several offices established for the disposal of the public lands, north of the Ohio, and above the mouth of Kentucky river.

The president is authorized, whenever he thinks proper, to direct the sale of so much of the public lands lying in the western district of the territory of Orleans, as shall have been surveyed conformably to the act to which this act is supplementary. Such land, except the section "number sixteen," reserved in each township for the support of schools; except also an entire township to be located by the secretary of the treasury, for the use of a seminary of learning, and except also the salt springs and land contiguous thereto, which, by direction of the president, may be reserved for the future disposal of the United States, shall be offered for sale to the highest bidder, under the direction of the register of the land office, of the receiver of public monies, and of the principal deputy surveyor; and on days appointed by proclamation of the president. The sales must remain open for three weeks, the lands sold for a price not less than that fixed by law for the public lands in the Mississippi territory, and in tracts of the same size, on the same conditions as are by law provided for lands sold in the Missisippi territory. The superintendents of the public sales are allowed six dollars a day each, during their attendance on the sales. All lands, except as above mentioned, remaining unsold at the closing of the public sales, may be disposed of at private sale, by the register of the land office, in the same manner, for the same price, and on the same conditions, as the public lands in the Missisippi territory. And patents shall be obtained for all lands granted or sold in the territory

of Orleans, in the same manner as for lands in the Missisippi territory.

Locations of land, made in the territory of Orleans, by major-general La Fayette, by virtue of the ninth section of the act, to which this act is a supplement, may be received, though containing less than one thousand acres; provided they do not contain less than five hundred acres.

The secretary of the treasury is authorized to cause a survey to be made of the sea coast of the territory of Orleans, from the mouth of the Missisippi to Vermillion bay inclusively, and as much farther westward as the president shall direct, and also of the adjoining bays, inlets, and navigable waters, provided the expence do not exceed five thousand dollars.

Twenty thousand dollars, in addition to the sum appropriated by the act to which this act is a supplement, is appropriated for carrying this act into effect.

XL. The registers and receivers of public monies of the districts of Vincennes and Kaskaskias are by this act empowered, under the direction of the secretary of the treasury, to lay out one or more tracts of land, for the purpose of locating tracts of land granted by virtue of any legal French or British grant, or of any act of congress. Such tracts, whenever practicable, must adjoin the tracts which, in conformity with former laws, have been laid out for similar purposes by the governors of the North-west or Indiana territories; and the tracts thus laid out shall not be otherwise disposed of, unless by order of congress.

Persons entitled to grants of land by virtue of any former act of congress, which are not particularly described in the patents issued by the said governors, or not yet located, are allowed to locate the same in the tracts laid out in each district, by virtue of the present law, the priority of such locations to be determined by lot in presence of the register of the land office, with whom the location shall be entered; and the surveyor general must have the same surveyed at the expence of the parties. All lands thus located shall be laid out in a body, without any intervals of vacant land, and shall each be surveyed in the form of a square or parallelogram, the length not to exceed three times its breadth.

The registers and receivers shall transmit their reports to the secretary of the treasury before the first day of December, 1806. Each of these officers are allowed additionally five hundred dollars; and each clerk of the respective boards, additionally, two hundred and fifty dollars, in full for his services in relation to such claims.

The register and receiver in the district of Cincinnati is likewise authorized to grant certificates of a right of pre-emption to any person residing on any reserved section (other than section No. 16), for the tract on which he resides, on the applicant's producing satisfactory evidence that his claim was within the provisions of the seventh section of an act "making provision for the disposal of the public lands in the Indiana territory, and for other purposes;" provided the person exhibit the evidence of his claim, and have paid at least one-twentieth

of the purchase money, on or before the first day of August, 1806; and provided such certificates be not granted for any lands previously granted or sold, or for a larger tract than a quarter of a section, and only for the tract on which he resides, to be granted at the same price, and the same payments to be made, as for other public lands sold at private sale.

XLI. The secretaries of state, treasury, war, and navy are authorized by this act to apportion the pay of clerks in their departments, as the services performed shall in their judgment require; but so that the whole pay, in each department, shall not exceed the following sums, annually:

For the department of state, seven thousand one hundred and fifty dollars.

For the treasury department, forty-four thousand two hundred and twenty-seven dollars and twenty-eight cents, that is to say: in the office of the secretary of the treasury, ten thousand two hundred and eighty-nine dollars and eighty-one cents; in that of comptroller, nine thousand and sixty-seven dollars; in that of the auditor, eight thousand eight hundred and eleven dollars; in that of the treasurer two thousand eight hundred and seventeen dollars, forty-five cents; and in that of the register, thirteen thousand two hundred and forty-two dollars and two cents.

For the department of war, sixteen thousand five hundred and forty dollars, that is to say: in the office of the secretary, six thousand three hundred and forty dollars; in that of the accountant, eight thousand five hundred dollars; and in that of the purveyor of public supplies, one thousand seven hundred dollars.

For the department of the navy, twelve thousand nine hundred dollars, that is to say: in the office of the secretary, four thousand nine hundred dollars; and in that of the accountant, eight thousand dollars.

The post-master general is authorized by this act to appoint such number of clerks in his office, and to apportion their pay as he thinks proper, but so that the whole ordinary amount do not exceed nine thousand three hundred and forty-five dollars, annually.

The director of the mint is authorized to allow to one of his clerks seven hundred dollars per annum; and in addition to expend one thousand dollars, annually, in clerk hire, in his own way. And the surveyor general is allowed twelve hundred dollars, annually, for clerk hire.

The commissioners of loans, in the states of Massachusetts and New York, are allowed five clerks, at five hundred dollars, each, per annum; the commissioner of loans in Connecticut two clerks, at four hundred dollars, each, per annum; the commissioner in Pennsylvania six clerks, at five hundred dollars, each, annually; the commissioners in Virginia and South Carolina, respectively, two clerks at five hundred dollars each, annually: the allotted sum to be by each commissioner divided among his clerks at his discretion. The act further allows as clerk hire, to the commissioner of loans in New Hampshire, three hundred and fifty dollars; to the commissioner in Rhode

Island, four hundred dollars; to the commissioner in New Jersey, three hundred dollars; and to the commissioner in Maryland, two hundred and fifty dollars.

The compensations allowed by this act are to commence with the year 1807, and each public officer above named, except the director of the mint, is ordered to report to congress, at the beginning of each year, the names of the clerks they have employed in the preceding year, and the hire of each; and whether the business for clerks increases or diminishes in their departments, that congress may be enabled to make further arrangements respecting clerk hire. And the secretary of the treasury particularly must report, whether the business in the loan office of Pennsylvania shall continue to require the additional sum of two thousand dollars allowed by this act for clerk hire, in consequence of the removal of the treasury office from Philadelphia, in 1800, to the seat of government; and likewise shall report the necessity, if such shall continue, of employing clerks on the business belonging to the office of the late commissioner of the revenue.

Hereafter, in case of the removal of a public office, by reason of sickness, in the town where such office is located, a particular account of the cost of such removal shall be laid before congress, that they may make due provision for the same.

The president is authorized to have a road made from the frontier of Georgia on the route from Athens to New Orleans, till the same intersects the thirty-first degree of north latitude; provided not more than six thousand four hundred dollars be expended on it. And also a road or roads through the territory lately ceded by the Indians to the United States, from the river Missisippi to the Ohio, and to the former Indian boundary line established by the treaty of Grenville; provided the expence exceed not six thousand dollars. And also a road from Nashville, in the state of Tennessee, to Natchez, in the Missisippi territory, at an expence of not more than six thousand dollars.

To defray these expences, beyond the appropriation for the support of government, for the year 1806, there are allowed by this act twenty eight thousand dollars.

XLII. For defraying the expences of the navy of the United States, during the year 1806, the following sums are applied by this act:

For pay and subsistence of the officers and pay of the seamen, two hundred and ninety-one thousand one hundred and nineteen dollars.

For provisions, one hundred and fifty-seven thousand two hundred and fifty-four dollars and thirty-four cents.

For medicine, instruments, and hospital stores, seven thousand five hundred dollars.

For repairs of vessels, store rent, pay of armourers, freight and other contingent expences, four hundred and eleven thousand nine hundred and fifty dollars.

For pay and subsistence of the marine corps, including provisions for those on shore, and forage for the staff, sixty-six thousand and twenty-eight dollars and ten cents.

For clothing for the same, fourteen thousand three hundred and sixty dollars.

For military stores for the same, one thousand one hundred and thirty-five dollars.

For medicine, medical services, hospital stores, and all other expences on account of the sick belonging to the marine corps, one thousand one hundred and fifty dollars.

For quarter master's and barrack master's stores, officers' travelling expences, armourer's and carpenter's bills, fuel, premium for enlisting, musical instruments, bounty to music, and other contingent expences, eight thousand one hundred and forty-five dollars.

For the expence of navy yards, docks, and other improvements, the pay of superintendents, store keepers, clerks, and labourers, sixty thousand dollars.

For ordnance fifty thousand dollars.

For completing the marine barracks, at the city of Washington, three thousand five hundred dollars.

XLIII. The governor and judges of the territory of Michigan, or any three of them, are authorized by this act to lay out a town, including the whole of the old town of Detroit, and ten thousand acres adjacent, except such parts as the president shall direct to be reserved for the use of the military department, and shall adjust all claims to lots therein, and give deeds for the same. And to every person, or his legal representative, who, not owing or professing allegiance to any foreign power, and being above the age of seventeen years, did, on the eleventh of June, 1805, when the old town of Detroit was burnt, own or inhabit a house in the same, the said governor and judges shall grant, where they judge proper, a lot not exceeding five thousand square feet.

The remainder of the said ten thousand acres, after satisfying claims above provided for, shall be disposed of by the said governor and judges to the best advantage, and make deeds to purchasers, and the proceeds shall be applied towards building a court house and jail in the town of Detroit, and the said governor and judges are required to make a report to congress, in writing, of their proceedings under this act.

XLIV. Forty thousand dollars is appropriated by this act, to be applied, under the direction of the president of the United States, towards completing the south wing of the capitol, at the city of Washington.

XLV. So much of the act *to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage* as requires the collector for the district of Great Egg harbour, in new Jersey, to reside at Somer's Point, is by this act repealed; and the said collector is allowed to reside at such place, within said district, as may be directed by the secretary of the treasury.

The town or landing place of Darien, on the Alatamaha river, in Georgia, is made a port of delivery, annexed to the district of Brunswick, and subjected to the same regulations as other ports of delivery. A surveyor is to be appointed to reside at the said port, and to receive

one hundred dollars, annual salary, with the other emoluments fixed by law.

Ocracocke inlet, in North Carolina, together with Shell Castle and Beacon islands, and all the shores, islands, shoals, bays, and waters within two miles of the shores of said inlet, on each side, are made a district, and called the district of Ocracocke; the president is authorized to name for the said district a port of entry; and a collector is to be appointed to reside at such port, who, besides the usual emoluments, is allowed the same salary as the surveyor of Beacon island; he is to perform the duties of the said surveyor, but no duties are payable in the district of Ocracocke, on any articles intended for any other port connected with the waters of the inlet of Ocracocke, such excepted as may be cast away within the district. The office of surveyor of Beacon island is abolished.

XLVI. Whenever any person who has received a pre-emption certificate, from either of the boards of commissioners, appointed for ascertaining the rights of persons to lands in the Missisippi territory, shall, by decree of the highest court in which a decision could be had, within the territory, rendered in favour of another person claiming under a British patent, lose the whole or part of the land to which such certificate entitled him, the receiver of public monies for the district where the land lies is authorized by this act to repay to such person, or his assigns, so much of the purchase money as had been paid by him for the land thus lost.

Where only a part of a tract of land, to which a person is entitled by a certificate such as above described, is also claimed by the holder of a British patent, a patent may issue in favour of the owners of such certificate, for so much of such tract as is not claimed by virtue of such British patent, if they, in every other respect, have complied with the provisions of the laws regulating the grants of land in the Missisippi territory. And the lands contained in British grants, duly recorded in conformity to former laws, and for which certificates have not been granted by the said commissioners, shall not be disposed of till otherwise directed by congress.

Persons having a right of pre-emption to lands in the Missisippi territory, by certificates granted as above, are allowed till the first of January, 1807, to make the first payment of the purchase money of such lands; and if such person shall neglect to make such first payment, on or before that day, his right of pre-emption shall cease.

Each commissioner appointed to ascertain the claims to lands in the above mentioned territory, west of Pearl river, is allowed six dollars a day, subsequent to the first of April, 1806; provided such additional allowance do not exceed five hundred dollars for each commissioner; and the agent appointed in behalf of the United States for the said board is allowed additionally three hundred and fifty dollars. And the register and receiver of public monies, in each district of the above mentioned territory, shall, after the dissolution of the board of commissioners for their district, regulate the location of land lying within his district, for which a certificate had been granted by the commissioners, whenever the locations described in such certificates interfere

with each other, or do not include the improvements, by virtue of which they were granted; but the said register and receiver shall not allow any location on land not improved and settled, as required by former laws, nor allow, in any case, more land than had been allowed by the commissioners.

Whenever the register and receiver of the district east of Pearl river are convinced that the settlement, by virtue of which a pre-emption certificate had been granted, had taken place prior to the thirtieth of March, 1798, they shall grant a donation certificate, in lieu of such pre-emption; and the patent shall issue as in other cases of donations: but application must be made for such an exchange, and evidence produced of the date of such settlement, on or before the thirty-first of December, 1806.

The right of the United States to all the land lying between the front street of the city of Natchez and the Missisippi river, and bounded north by North Fourth-street, and the land granted to Stephen Minor, and south by the lands annexed to the old fort, and those granted to William Barland, is vested by this act in the corporation of that city, so as not to affect the legal or equitable claim of individuals, or corporations; but the said land must neither be cultivated nor occupied by buildings, but be planted with trees, and preserved as a common, for the use of the inhabitants of the city.

Whenever the section No. 16 shall fall on land already granted by congress, or claimed under a British grant, the secretary of the treasury shall locate another section in the same township, if there be any other vacant section therein, and, otherwise, in an adjoining township, for the same use.

R. Sparks is permitted to enter with the register of the land office, for the district west of Pearl river, his claim to three hundred and twenty acres of land, lying within that district; and R. S. Bryan, and G. Brewer, senior, are permitted to enter with the register, for the district east of Pearl river, their certificate of a right of pre-emption for three hundred and twenty acres of land, lying within the district last mentioned: and such entry of the first named claim shall have the same effect, as if made prior to the first of December, 1804, and such entry of the last named certificate shall have the same effect as if made within three months from the time it was issued.

XLVII. One hundred and fifty thousand dollars, in addition to the sums heretofore appropriated, are granted by this act to enable the president to cause the ports of the United States to be better fortified.

Two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, in addition to the sums heretofore appropriated, are also granted to enable the president to cause to be built fifty gun boats, for the protection of the harbours, coasts, and commerce of the United States; and the president is authorized to man and equip any part, or all of such gun boats, when he deems expedient; and twenty thousand dollars are granted to defray expences incurred by manning and equipping gun boats.

The president may direct any of the armed vessels of the United

States to be sold, when so much decayed or injured as, in his opinion, makes it inexpedient for the public to repair them.

XLVIII. The president is authorized by this act to establish trading houses at places on the frontiers, or in the Indian country, on either or both sides of the Missisippi, as he shall judge convenient, for carrying on a liberal trade with the several Indian nations.

The president is authorized to appoint a superintendant of Indian trade, who is to purchase and take charge of all goods intended for trade with the Indian nations; to transmit the same to places directed by the president; to take an oath or affirmation faithfully to execute this trust, and not, directly or indirectly, to be concerned in any trade, but on the public account; and to give bond, in twenty thousand dollars, with security to be approved by the secretary of the treasury, truly to account for all the property which shall come into his hands, or for which in good faith he ought to account, and to perform all the duties required of him by this act; and his accounts shall be made up quarter-yearly, and transmitted to the secretary of the treasury.

The superintendant shall receive two thousand dollars a year, payable quarter-yearly.

The president shall appoint an agent for each trading house established under this act; and such agent shall give bond with security, in such sum as the president shall direct, to perform duly his office.

Each agent must receive from the superintendant of Indian trade, and dispose of, in trade with the Indian nations, goods transmitted by the superintendant, according to the rules which the president shall prescribe; and every agent shall take an oath or affirmation faithfully to execute his trust, and that he will not, directly or indirectly, be concerned in any trade, but on the public account, and shall render an account, quarter-yearly, to the superintendant, of all property transmitted to him, or which shall come into his hands, or for which, in good faith, he ought to account; and shall transmit duplicates of his accounts to the secretary of the treasury of the United States.

The superintendant, the agents, their clerks, or other persons employed by them, shall not be, directly or indirectly, concerned in exporting to a foreign country any peltries belonging to the United States, or interested in carrying on trade on any other than the public account, or take any emolument for transacting any trade, during his appointment, other than provided by this act, or excepting for account of the United States. And if he shall offend against any of these prohibitions, he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and, on conviction, forfeit a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars, be removed from such office, and for ever be incapable of holding any office under the United States. If any person, other than a public prosecutor, shall inform of such offence, on which a prosecution and conviction shall be had, one-half of the penalty shall go to him. Such misdemeanour, committed by the superintendant, or by any agent, shall be deemed a breach of the condition of his bond, and the penalty be recovered in any court having competent jurisdiction.

The prices of goods supplied to the Indians shall be so regulated

that the capital stock, furnished by the United States, shall not be diminished.

Three thousand dollars a year is appropriated for the salary of the superintendant of Indian trade and his clerks.

The president is authorized to draw annually from the treasury ten thousand dollars, for the payment, under his direction, of the agents and clerks; which agents shall be allowed two rations each, and each clerk one ration per day.

Two hundred and sixty thousand dollars, including the sums heretofore applied to the like purpose, and exclusive of the salary of the superintendant of Indian trade, and of allowances to agents and clerks, are granted, by this act, for carrying on such trade with the Indian nations.

If any agent, his clerks, or others employed by them, shall take from any Indian, in the way of trade or barter, any article commonly used in hunting, any instrument of husbandry or cooking utensil, of the kind usually obtained by Indians in their intercourse with white people, or any article of clothing, except skins or furs, he shall forfeit one hundred dollars for each offence, recoverable by action of debt. But suits shall be commenced only in the territory within which the cause of action has arisen, or in which the defendant may reside. And the superintendant of Indian trade, or the superintendants of Indian affairs, and their deputies, to whom information of such offence shall be given, shall collect the requisite evidence, if attainable, without delay.

The superintendant of Indian trade, under the direction of the president, shall cause the said peltry to be sold at public auction, public notice being given three weeks previous to such sale, in different parts of the United States, making an equal distribution of the same, in proportion to the demand of the market, and as may be deemed most advantageous to the United States, and on such terms as shall be prescribed by the secretary of war; but there shall not be less than six annual public sales of the said peltry, and the superintendant of Indian trade shall not hold more than two such sales in any state, during one year.

This act is to be in force three years from the twenty-first of April, 1806.

XLIX. If any person shall counterfeit, or procure to be counterfeited, or willingly aid in counterfeiting, any gold or silver coin, coined, at any time, at the mint of the United States, or any foreign gold or silver coins, which, by law, are or may be current, as money within the United States; or shall utter, as true, any such counterfeited coins of gold or silver, for the payment of money, with intention to defraud, knowing them to be counterfeited, he shall be deemed guilty of felony, and, being duly convicted, shall be sentenced to imprisonment, and kept at hard labour for not less than three, nor more than ten years; or shall be imprisoned for not more than five years, and fined not more than five thousand dollars.

If any person shall bring into the United States any counterfeit gold or silver coins, by law made current, or in actual use, as money, within the United States, with the intent to make payment with them, know-

ing them to be counterfeit; or who shall utter, as true, any such counterfeited coins, for the payment of money, with intention to defraud, knowing them to be counterfeit, he shall be deemed guilty of felony, and, being duly convicted, shall be sentenced to imprisonment, and kept at hard labour for not less than two, nor more than eight years; or shall be imprisoned not exceeding two years, and fined not exceeding four thousand dollars.

If any person shall fraudulently and for gain's sake, by any means whatever, impair, falsify, or lighten the gold or silver coins, by law made current, or in actual use as money, within the United States, they shall be deemed guilty of a high misdemeanour, and shall be imprisoned not exceeding two years, and fined not exceeding two thousand dollars.

This act shall not deprive the courts of the individual states of jurisdiction, under the laws of the several states, over offences made punishable by this act.

L. So much of any former laws as authorize the receipt of evidences of the public debt, in payment for the public lands, is, after the thirtieth of April, 1806, repealed by this act; but the right of all persons who may have purchased public lands previous to the eighteenth of April, 1806, to pay for them in stock, shall not be affected. There shall be allowed on every payment made in money, when due, for lands purchased before the thirtieth of April, 1806, in addition to the discount, now allowed by law, a deduction equal to the difference at the time of such payment, between the market price of six per cent. stock and the nominal value of its unredeemed amount, which market price shall, from time to time, be stated by the secretary of the treasury to the officers of the several land offices.

The commissioners of the sinking fund shall not purchase any of the several species of the public debt, at a higher price than the following: they shall not pay more for three per cent. stock than sixty per cent. of its nominal value; nor for any other species of the public debt more than the nominal value of its unredeemed amount, the eight per cent. stock only excepted; for which they shall be authorized, in addition thereto, to give at the rate of one half of one per cent. on the said nominal value, for each quarterly dividend which may be payable on such purchased stock, from the time of such purchase to the first day of January, 1809.

So much of any former law as directs purchases of the public debt, made by the commissioners of the sinking fund, to be made within the thirty days next ensuing each day on which a quarterly payment of interest on the debt of the United States becomes due: and also so much of any law as directs the said purchases to be made by open purchase, or by sealed proposals, is by this act repealed. And the said commissioners are authorized to purchase, under the restrictions laid by the present act, in such manner, and at such times and places as they shall deem most eligible; and for that purpose to appoint known agents, to whom they may allow a commission, not exceeding one fourth of one per cent. on their respective purchases.

LI. The secretary of the treasury is directed by this act to cause to be erected the following light houses in the state of Massachusetts:

One on Franklin island, at the mouth of St. George's river, in the district of Maine.

One on West Passamaquody head, at the entrance into the bay and harbour of Passamaquody, in the district of Maine.

And a double light house at or near Chatham harbor, on the back of Cape Cod.

Provided sufficient land for the accommodation of such light houses can be obtained at reasonable prices, and the legislature of Massachusetts shall cede the jurisdiction over the same to the United States. And the secretary of the treasury is authorized to agree for the wages of the persons appointed by the president for the superintendence and care of such light houses, and otherwise to provide for the same, at the expence of the United States.

The secretary of the treasury is required to cause a beacon, or pier, to be erected near the mouth of the harbour of Bridgeport, in the state of Connecticut; and to cause buoys to be fixed on Bluff Shoal, Royal Shoal, North-west Straddle, and South-west Straddle, in the waters of Pamptico sound, in the state of North Carolina.

For defraying the expences of erecting each light house, this act grants five thousand dollars; for the expence of erecting the beacon, or pier, one thousand dollars; and for the expence of fixing the buoys, one thousand dollars.

LII. The provisions of the act *for providing compensation for the marshals, clerks, attornies, jurors, and witnesses, in the courts of the United States, and to repeal certain parts of the acts therein mentioned, and for other purposes*, passed February the twenty-eighth, 1799, are extended by this act to the territories of the United States, so far as they relate to the provisions of the act *to extend jurisdiction in certain cases to the territorial courts*, passed March the third, 1805, except that the clerks of the said territorial courts shall not receive the additional five dollars per day, allowed to the clerks of the circuit and district courts, by the third section of the act first mentioned.

LIII. For carrying into effect a treaty between the United States and the Delawares, Potawatimies, Miamies, Eel river, and Weaws, holden at Grouseland, near Vincennes, on the twenty-first of August, 1805, one thousand six hundred dollars are ordered by this act to be paid to these tribes, annually: to the Miamies, six hundred dollars; to the Eel river tribe, two hundred and fifty dollars; to the Weaws, two hundred and fifty dollars; which annuities shall be permanent; and to the Potawatimies, annually, for ten years, five hundred dollars, in addition to former annuities.

For carrying into effect a treaty between the United States and the Wyandot, Ottawa, Munsee and Delaware, Shawanee, and Potawatimie nations, holden at Fort Industry, on the fourth of July, 1805, eight hundred and twenty-five dollars are annually to be paid.

For carrying into effect two treaties between the United States and the Cherokee Indians, holden at Tellico, on the twenty-fifth and twenty-seventh of October, 1805, fifteen thousand six hundred dollars, and the further annual sum of three thousand dollars are likewise granted.

For carrying into effect a convention between the United States and

the Creek nation of Indians, concluded at Washington, on the fourteenth of November, 1805, twelve thousand dollars, annually, for eight years, and eleven thousand dollars, annually, for ten years, are appropriated.

LIV. For defraying the expence of the military establishment of the United States, for the year 1806; for the Indian department, and for the expence of fortifications, arsenals, magazines, and armories, the following sums are granted by this act:

For the pay of the army three hundred and two thousand five hundred and fifty-six dollars.

For forage, four thousand six hundred and eight dollars.

For the subsistence of the army and corps of engineers, two hundred and twenty-four thousand, nine hundred and ninety-four dollars, five cents.

For clothing, eighty-five thousand dollars.

For bounties and premiums, fifteen thousand dollars.

For the medical and hospital departments, twelve thousand dollars.

For camp equipage, fuel, tools, and transportation, eighty-five thousand dollars.

For fortifications, arsenals, magazines and armouries, two hundred and eighteen thousand five hundred and forty-two dollars, five cents.

For purchasing maps, plans, books, and instruments, one thousand five hundred dollars.

For the contingent expences of the war department, eighteen thousand dollars.

For the pay and subsistence of the commandants in Louisiana, six thousand and sixty-six dollars, sixty-seven cents.

For the Indian department, ninety-six thousand six hundred dollars.

LV. The following post roads are discontinued by this act: from Dixon's Spring to Lebanon in Tennessee; and from Raleigh, by Haywood, Chatham court house, and Chapel Hill, to Hillsborough in North Carolina.

The following post roads are established:

In Massachusetts.

From Granville, through Sandisfield and New Malborough, to Stockbridge; and from Rochester, by Middleborough, East Meeting House, to East Bridgewater; from Brookfield, through Brimfield in Massachusetts, to Stafford Springs, and thence to Tolland in Connecticut.

In the district of Maine.

From Brewer's to Plantation number five. From Vassalborough, through Fairfax, Unity, Collegetown, to Hamden. From Buckfield, through Hartford, to Livermore; and from New Milford, through Ballstown, Palermo, and Davistown, to Belfast.

In Vermont.

From Royalton, through Tunbridge, Chelsea, and Vershire, to Corinth.

In Connecticut.

From Pomfret, through Gloucester, to Providence in Rhode Island.

In New York.

From the town of Cherry Valley, through Springfield, Richfield, Plainfield, and Bridgewater, to Sangersfield; and from Harrisburgh, through Williamstown, Ogdensburg, Potsdam, Chauteaugay, to Plattsburgh. From Rome, through Redfield, Adams, by Smith's mills to Sacket Harbour, and from thence to Chemangh. From Bath, through Canistio town, Danville, and Williamsburgh, to Hartford; and from Onandago to the village of Oswego in Lysander; and a cross post from West Hampton, to River Head. From New Lebanon, in the state of New York, by Hancock, Richmond, Lennox, Lee, Becket, Loudon, and Sandisfield, in Massachusetts, to New Hartford in Connecticut.

In New Jersey.

From Belvidere to Stroudsburg, in Pennsylvania.

In Pennsylvania.

From Berlin, though Salisbury, to Cumberland. From Greenburgh to Kittanning; from Tunckhannok to Chenango Point in New York; and from Greensburgh, though Mount Pleasant, Robbstown, and Williamsport, to Washington; and from Washington, through Alexandria, to Wheeling. From Gettysburg, through Miller's town, Nicholson's Gap, and Waynesburg, to Green Castle.

In Delaware.

From the village of Christiana, through Newark, to Strasburgh in Pennsylvania; and from Georgetown, through Concord, to Laurel.

In Maryland.

The post road from Vienna, in Dorchester county, to Snow Hill, in Worcester county, and thence returning to Vienna, may, in the discretion of the postmaster general, be so altered as to pass over Wicomico lower ferry and Quantico mills: provided no additional expence in transporting the mail shall be incurred thereby.

In Virginia.

From Lynchburgh to Lexington. From Waterford to Snicker's Gap, by the stores of Robert Branden and Jesse Janney, and from thence to Upperville, and to return by Israel Janny's mill. From Wythe court house, by Tazewell court house, Russell court house, Lee court house, to Robinson's mills. And from Madison court house to Stanardsville. The post road from Manchester to Colesville shall pass by Chesterfield court house and Spring Hill.

In North Carolina.

From Averysborough, by Haywood, Chatham court house, to cross Haw river near Jones' ferry, to Hillsborough. From Raleigh, by Chapel Hill, to Hillsborough. From Wilmington through Conwayborough, to Georgetown, in South Carolina; and from Wilksborough to Ashe court house.

In South Carolina.

From Portsferry to Conwayborough; and from Portsferry, by Marion court house, to Thomas Harley's.

In Georgia.

From Washington to Petersburg, and from Athens to Knoxville in Tennessee.

In Ohio.

From Cincinnati, by North Bend, to Lawrenceburgh in the Indiana territory. From Austinburg to Erie in Pennsylvania, and from Franklinton to Worthington.

In Kentucky.

From Newcastle or Henry court house, by Gallatin court house and Boone court house, to Laurenceburg in the Indiana territory; and the post road from Henderson to Eddeville shall pass by Livingston court house.

In Tennessee.

From Mount Granger to Carthage, thence, by Navenaugh, to Lebanon. From Nashville to Charlotte. From Burrville, by Walnut Cove, thence along the turnpike road by way of Chitwood's, to Pulaski in Kentucky; and from Palmyra to Stuart court house, and thence to Eddyville.

In Orleans territory.

From Rapid settlement to Apelousa.

Two hundred and fifty dollars are appropriated, to enable the postmaster general to defray the expences incurred in providing for the accommodation of H. Webb, who, in August last, was wounded by some person unknown, while employed in carrying the mail of the United States, and who is now under the care of the commandant at fort Stoddert

On the tenth of April, 1806, both houses of congress resolved, that the president be requested to make known to Nicholas C. Nissen, esquire, his Danish majesty's consul residing at Tripoli, the high sense entertained by congress of his disinterested and benevolent attentions, towards captain Bainbridge, his officers, and crew, during their captivity in Tripoli.

PUBLIC ACTS.

I. A treaty between the United States of America and the bashaw of Tripoli, concluded on the fourth day of June, 1805, and ratified by the president of the United States on the seventeenth day of April, 1806, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

1. There shall be, from the conclusion of this treaty, a firm, inviolable, and universal peace, and sincere friendship betweed the president and citizens of the United States of America, on the one part, and the bashaw, bey, and subjects of the regency of Tripoli, in Barbary, on the other, made by the free consent of both parties, and on the terms of the most favoured nation. And if either party shall hereafter grant to any other nation, any particular favour or privilege in navigation or commerce, it shall immediately become common to the other party, freely, where it is freely granted to such other nation; but where the grant is conditional, it shall be at the option of the contracting parties to accept, alter, or reject such conditions, in such manner as shall be most conducive to their respective interests.

2. The bashaw of Tripoli shall deliver up to the American squadron, now off Tripoli, all the Americans in his possession; and all the subjects of the bashaw of Tripoli, now in the power of the United States of America, shall be delivered up to him; and as the number of Americans in possession of the bashaw of Tripoli amounts to three hundred persons, more or less, and the number of Tripoline subjects in the power of the Americans, is about one hundred, more or less, the bashaw of Tripoli shall receive, from the United States of America, the sum of sixty thousand dollars, as a payment for the difference between the prisoners herein mentioned.

3. All the forces of the United States, which have been, or may be in hostility against the bashaw of Tripoli, in the province of Derne, or elsewhere within the dominions of the said bashaw, shall be withdrawn therefrom, and no supplies shall be given, by or in behalf of the said United States, during the continuance of this peace, to any of the subjects of the said bashaw, who may be in hostility against him, in any part of his dominions; and the Americans will use all means in their power to persuade the brother of the said bashaw, who has co-operated with them at Derne, &c., to withdraw from the territory of the said bashaw of Tripoli, but will not use any force or improper means to effect that object; and in case he should withdraw himself as aforesaid, the bashaw engages to deliver up to him his wife and children now in his power.

4. If any goods belonging to any nation, with which either of the parties are at war, should be loaded on board vessels belonging to the other party, they shall pass free and unmolested, and no attempts shall be made to take or detain them.

5. If any citizens or subjects with their effects, belonging to either party, shall be found on board a prize vessel, taken from an enemy by the other party, such citizens or subjects shall be liberated immediately, and their effects, so captured, shall be restored to their lawful owners, or their agents.

6. Proper passports shall immediately be given to the vessels of both the contracting parties, on condition, that the vessels of war belonging to the regency of Tripoli, on meeting with merchant vessels belonging to citizens of the United States of America, shall not be permitted to visit them with more than two persons besides the rowers; these two only shall be permitted to go on board, without first obtaining leave from the commander of said vessel, who shall compare the passport, and immediately permit said vessel to proceed on her voyage; and should any of the said subjects of Tripoli insult or molest the commander, or any other person on board a vessel so visited, or plunder any of the property contained in her, on complaint being made by the consul of the United States of America resident in Tripoli, and on his producing sufficient proof to substantiate the fact, the commanders or rais of said Tripoline ship or vessel of war, as well as the offenders, shall be punished in the most exemplary manner. All vessels of war belonging to the United States of America, on meeting with a cruizer belonging to the regency of Tripoli, on having seen her passport and certificate from the consul of the United States of America residing in the regency, shall permit her to proceed on her cruize unmolested, and without detention. No passport shall be granted by either party to any vessels, but such as are absolutely the property of citizens or subjects of said contracting parties, on any pretence whatever.

7. A citizen or subject of either of the contracting parties, having bought a prize vessel, condemned by the other party, or by any other nation, the certificate of condemnation and bill of sale shall be a sufficient passport for such vessel for two years, which, considering the distance between the two countries, is no more than a reasonable time for her to procure proper passports.

8. Vessels of either party, putting into the ports of the other, and having need of provisions or other supplies, they shall be furnished at the market price, and if any such vessel should so put in, from a disaster at sea, and have occasion to repair, she shall be at liberty to land and reimbark her cargo, without paying any duties; but in no case shall she be compelled to land her cargo.

9. Should a vessel of either party be cast on the shore of the other, all proper assistance shall be given to her and her crew. No pillage shall be allowed, the property shall remain at the disposition of the owners, and the crew protected and succoured, till they can be sent to their country.

10. If a vessel of either party shall be attacked by an enemy within gun-shot of the forts of the other, she shall be defended as much as possible. If she be in port, she shall not be seized or attacked when it is in the power of the other party to protect her; and when she proceeds to sea, no enemy shall be allowed to pursue her from the same port, within twenty-four hours after her departure.

11. The commerce between the United States of America, and the regency of Tripoli; the protections to be given to merchants, masters of vessels, and seamen; the reciprocal right of establishing consuls in each country, and the privileges, immunities, and jurisdictions, to be enjoyed by such consuls, are declared to be on the same footing with those of the most favoured nations, respectively.

12. The consul of the United States of America shall not be answerable for debts contracted by citizens of his own nation, unless he previously gives a written obligation so to do.

13. On a vessel of war, belonging to the United States of America, anchoring before the city of Tripoli, the consul is to inform the bashaw of her arrival, and she shall be saluted with twenty-one guns, which she is to return in the same quantity or number.

14. As the government of the United States of America has, in itself, no character of enmity against the laws, religion, or tranquillity of mussulmen, and as the said states never have entered into any voluntary war or act of hostility against any Mahometan nation, except in the defence of their just rights to freely navigate the high seas, it is declared by the contracting parties, that no pretext arising from religious opinions shall ever produce an interruption of the harmony existing between the two nations. And the consuls and agents of both nations respectively shall have liberty to exercise his religion in his own house. All slaves of the same religion shall not be impeded in going to said consul's house at hours of prayer. The consuls shall have liberty and personal security given them, to travel within the territories of each other both by land and sea, and shall not be prevented from going on board any vessel that they may think proper to visit. They shall have likewise the liberty to appoint their own drogerman and brokers.

15. In case of any dispute arising, from the violation of any of the articles of this treaty, no appeal shall be made to arms, nor shall war be declared on any pretext whatever; but if the consul residing at the place where the dispute shall happen shall not be able to settle the

same, the government of that country shall state their grievances in writing, and transmit it to the government of the other; and the period of twelve calendar months shall be allowed for answers to be returned; during which time no act of hostility shall be permitted by either party; and in case the grievances are not redressed, and a war should be the event, the consuls and citizens or subjects of both parties reciprocally shall be permitted to embark with their effects unmolested, on board of what vessel or vessels they shall think proper.

16. If, in the fluctuation of human events, a war should break out between the two nations, the prisoners captured by either party shall not be made slaves, but shall be exchanged rank for rank. And if there should be a deficiency on either side, it shall be made up by the payment of five hundred Spanish dollars for each captain, three hundred dollars for each mate and supercargo, and one hundred Spanish dollars for each seaman so wanting. And it is agreed that prisoners shall be exchanged in twelve months from the time of their capture; and that the exchange may be effected by any private individual legally authorized by either of the parties.

17. If any of the Barbary states, or other powers, at war with the United States of America, shall capture any American vessel, and send her into any of the ports of the regency of Tripoli, they shall not be permitted to sell her, but shall be obliged to depart the port, on procuring the requisite supplies of provisions; and no duties shall be exacted on the sale of prizes, captured by the vessels sailing under the flag of the United States of America, when brought into any port in the regency of Tripoli.

18. If any of the citizens of the United States, or any persons under their protection, shall have any disputes with each other, the consul shall decide between the parties; and whenever the consul shall require any aid or assistance from the government of Tripoli to enforce his decisions, it shall immediately be granted to him; and if any disputes shall arise between any citizen of the United States, and the citizens or subjects of any other nation having a consul or agent in Tripoli, such disputes shall be settled by the consuls or agents of the respective nations.

19. If a citizen of the United States should kill or wound a Tripoline, or, on the contrary, if a Tripoline shall kill or wound a citizen of the United States, the law of the country shall take place, and equal justice shall be rendered, the consul assisting at the trial; and if any delinquent shall make his escape, the consul shall not be answerable for him in any manner whatever.

20. Should any of the citizens of the United States of America die within the limits of the regency of Tripoli, the bashaw and his subjects shall not interfere with the property of the deceased, but it shall be under the immediate direction of the consul, unless otherwise disposed of by will. Should there be no consul, the effects shall be deposited in the hands of some person worthy of trust, until the party shall appear who has a right to demand them, when they shall render an account of the property. Neither shall the bashaw or his subjects give hindrance in the execution of any will that may appear.

II. A treaty between the United States of America, and the sachems, chiefs, and warriors of the Wyandot, Ottawa, Chippawa, Munsee, and Delaware, Shawanee, and Puttawatimie nations, holden at Fort Industry, on the Miami of the lake, on the fourth day of July, 1805, and ratified by the president of the United States, on the twenty-fourth day of April, 1806, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

1. The said Indian nations do again acknowledge themselves and all their tribes to be in friendship with, and under the protection of the United States.

2. The boundary line between the United States and the nations aforesaid shall in future be a meridian line drawn north and south, through a boundary to be erected on the south shore of lake Erie, one hundred and twenty miles due west of the west boundary line of the state of Pennsylvania, extending north until it intersects the boundary line of the United States, and extending south till it intersects a line heretofore established by the treaty of Grenville.

3. The Indian nations aforesaid, for the consideration of friendship to the United States, and the sums of money hereinafter mentioned, to be paid annually to the Wyandot, Shawanee, Munsee, and Delaware nations, have ceded and do hereby cede and relinquish to said United States for ever, all the lands belonging to said United States lying east of the aforesaid line, bounded southerly and easterly by the line established by said treaty of Grenville, and northerly by the northernmost part of the forty-first degree of north latitude.

4. The United States, to preserve harmony, manifest their liberality, and in consideration of the cession made in the preceding article, will, every year for ever hereafter, at Detroit, or some other convenient place, pay and deliver to the Wyandot, Munsee, and Delaware nations, and those of the Shawanee and Seneca nations who reside with the Wyandots, the sum of eight hundred and twenty-five dollars, current money of the United States, and the further sum of one hundred and seventy-five dollars, making in the whole an annuity of one thousand dollars; which last sum of one hundred and seventy-five dollars has been secured to the president, in trust for said nations, by the Connecticut land company, and by the company incorporated by the name of "the proprietors of the half million acres of land lying south of lake Erie, called Sufferer's Land," payable annually as aforesaid, and to be divided between said nations, from time to time, in such proportions as said nations, with the approbation of the president, shall agree.

5. To prevent all misunderstanding hereafter, it is to be expressly remembered, that the Ottawa and Chipawa nations, and such of the Pottawatima nation as reside on the river Huron of lake Erie, and in the neighbourhood thereof, have received from the Connecticut land company, and the company incorporated by the name of "the proprietors of the half million acres of land lying south of lake Erie, called Sufferer's Land," the sum of four thousand dollars in hand, and have secured to the president of the United States, in trust for them, the further sum of twelve thousand dollars, payable in six annual instalments of two thousand dollars each; which several sums is the full amount of their proportion of the purchases effected by this treaty, and

also by a treaty with said companies bearing even date herewith; which proportions were agreed on and concluded by the whole of said nations in their general council; which several sums, together with two thousand nine hundred and sixteen dollars and sixty-seven cents, secured to the president, to raise said sum of one hundred and seventy-five dollars annuity as aforesaid, is the amount of the consideration paid by the agents of the Connecticut Reserve, for the cession of their lands.

6. The said Indian nations, parties to this treaty, shall be at liberty to fish and hunt within the territory and lands which they have now ceded to the United States, so long as they shall demean themselves peaceably.

III. A treaty between the United States of America, and the tribes of Indians called the Delawares, Pottawatimies, Miamies, Eel River, and Weas, concluded on the twenty-first day of August, 1805, and ratified by the president of the United States on the twenty-fourth day of April, 1806, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

Articles of a treaty made and entered into, at Grouseland, near Vincennes, in the Indiana territory, by and between William Henry Harrison, governor of said territory, superintendant of Indian affairs, and commissioner plenipotentiary of the United States, for treating with the north-western tribes of Indians, of the one part, and the tribes of Indians called the Delawares, Pottawatimies, Miamies, Eel River, and Weas, jointly and severally by their chiefs and head men, of the other part.

1. Whereas by the fourth article of a treaty made between the United States and the Delaware tribe, on the eighteenth day of August, 1804, the said United States engaged to consider the said Delawares as the proprietors of all that tract of country which is bounded by the White river on the north, the Ohio and Clark's grant on the south, the general boundary line running from the mouth of Kentucky river on the east, and the tract ceded by the treaty of Fort Wayne, and the road leading to Clark's grant on the west and south-west. And whereas the Miami tribe, from whom the Delawares derived their claim, contend that, in their cession of said tract to the Delawares, it was never their intention to convey to them the right of the soil, but to suffer them to occupy it as long as they thought proper, the said Delawares have, for the sake of peace and good neighbourhood, determined to relinquish their claim to the said tract, and do by these presents release the United States from the guarantee made in the before mentioned article of the treaty of August, 1804.

2. The said Miami, Eel River, and Wea tribes cede and relinquish to the United States for ever all that tract of country which lies to the south of a line to be drawn from the north-east corner of the tract ceded by the treaty of Fort Wayne, so as to strike the general boundary line, running from a point opposite to the mouth of the Kentucky river, to Fort Recovery, at the distance of fifty miles from its commencement on the Ohio river.

3. In consideration of the cession made in the preceding article, the United States will give an additional permanent annuity to said

Miamies, Eel River, and Wea tribes, in the following proportions, viz: to the Miamies, six hundred dollars; to the Eel River tribe, two hundred and fifty dollars; to the Weas, two hundred and fifty dollars; and also to the Pottawatimies, an additional annuity of five hundred dollars, for ten years, and no longer; which, together with the sum of four thousand dollars which is now delivered, the receipt whereof they do hereby acknowledge, is to be considered as a full compensation for the land now ceded.

4. As the tribes which are now called the Miamies, Eel River, and Weas were formerly and still consider themselves as one nation, and as they have determined that neither of those tribes shall dispose of any part of the country which they hold in common; in order to quiet their minds on that head, the United States do hereby engage to consider them as joint owners of all the country on the Wabash and its waters, above the Vincennes tract, and which has not been ceded to the United States, by this or any former treaty; and they do further engage that they will not purchase any part of the said country without the consent of each of the said tribes. Provided always, that nothing in this section contained shall in any manner weaken or destroy any claim which the Kickapoos, who are not represented at this treaty, may have to the country they now occupy on the Vermillion river.

5. The Pottawatimies, Miami, Eel River, and Wea tribes explicitly acknowledge the right of the Delawares to sell the tract of land conveyed to the United States by the treaty of the eighteenth day of August, 1804, which tract was given by the Piankeshaws to the Delawares about thirty-seven years ago.

6. The annuities herein stipulated to be paid by the United States, shall be delivered in the same manner, and under the same conditions as those which the said tribes have heretofore received.

7. This treaty shall be in force and obligatory on the contracting parties as soon as the same shall have been ratified by the president, by and with the advice and consent of the senate of the United States.

Additional article.

It is the intention of the contracting parties, that the boundary line herein directed to be run from the north-east corner of the Vincennes tract to the boundary line running from the mouth of the Kentucky river, shall not cross the Embarrass or Drift Wood fork of White river, but if it should strike the said fork, such an alteration in the direction of the said line is to be made, as will leave the whole of the said fork in the Indian territory.

IV. A treaty between the United States of America and the Cherokee nation of Indians, concluded on the twenty-fifth day of October, 1805, and duly ratified by the president of the United States on the twenty-fourth day of April, 1806, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

Articles of a treaty agreed upon between the United States of America, by their commissioners Return J. Meigs and Daniel Smith,

appointed to hold conferences with the Cherokee Indians, for the purpose of arranging certain interesting matters with the said Cherokees, of the one part, and the chiefs and head men of the said nation, of the other part.

1. All former treaties, which provide for the maintenance of peace and preventing of crimes, are on this occasion recognized and continued in force.

2. The Cherokees quit claim and cede to the United States all the land which they have heretofore claimed, lying to the north of the following boundary line: beginning at the mouth of Duck river, running thence up the main stream of the same to the junction of the fork, at the head of which Fort Nash stood, with the main south fork; thence a direct course to a point on the Tennessee river bank opposite the mouth of Hiwassee river. If the line from Hiwassee should leave out Field's Settlement, it is to be marked round his improvement, and then continued the straight course; thence up the middle of the Tennessee river (but leaving all the islands to the Cherokees) to the mouth of Clinch river; thence up the Clinch river to the former boundary line agreed upon with the said Cherokees, reserving at the same time to the use of the Cherokees a small tract lying at and below the mouth of Clinch river; from the mouth extending thence down the Tennessee river, from the mouth of Clinch to a notable rock on the north bank of the Tennessee, in view from South-west Point; thence a course at right angles with the river, to the Cumberland road; thence eastwardly along the same, to the bank of Clinch river, so as to secure the ferry landing to the Cherokees up to the first hill, and down the same to the mouth thereof, together with two other sections of one square mile each, one of which is at the foot of Cumberland mountain, at and near the place where the turnpike gate now stands; the other on the north bank of the Tennessee river, where the Cherokee Talootiske now lives. And whereas, from the present cession made by the Cherokees, and other circumstances, the site of the garrisons at South-west Point and Tellico are become not the most convenient and suitable places for the accommodation of the said Indians, it may become expedient to remove the said garrisons and factory to some more suitable place; three other square miles are reserved for the particular disposal of the United States on the north bank of the Tennessee, opposite to and below the mouth of Hiwassee.

3. In consideration of the above cession and relinquishment, the United States agree to pay immediately three thousand dollars in valuable merchandize, and eleven thousand dollars within ninety days after the ratification of this treaty, and also an annuity of three thousand dollars, the commencement of which is this day. But so much of the said eleven thousand dollars, as the said Cherokees may agree to accept in useful articles of, and machines for, agriculture and manufactures, shall be paid in those articles, at their option.

4. The citizens of the United States shall have the free and unmolested use and enjoyment of the two following described roads, in addition to those which are at present established through their country; one to proceed from some convenient place near the head of Stone's

river, and fall into the Georgia road at a suitable place towards the southern frontier of the Cherokees. The other to proceed from the neighbourhood of Franklin, or Big Harpath, and crossing the Tennessee at or near the Muscle Shoals, to pursue the nearest and best way to the settlements on the Tombigbee. These roads shall be viewed and marked out by men appointed on each side for that purpose, in order that they may be directed the nearest and best ways, and of the time of doing the business the Cherokees shall be duly notified.

5. This treaty shall take effect and be obligatory on the contracting parties, as soon as it is ratified by the president of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the senate of the same.

V. A convention between the United States and the Creek nation of Indians, concluded on the fourteenth day of November, 1805, and ratified by the president of the United States on the second day of June, 1806, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

Articles of a convention made between Henry Dearborn, secretary of war, being specially authorized therefore by the president of the United States, and Oche Haujo, William M'Intoch, Tuskenchaw, Chapco, Tuskenchaw, Enchaw Thlucco, Checopeheke, Emantlaw, chiefs and head men of the Creek nation of Indians, duly authorized and empowered by said nation.

1. The aforesaid chiefs and head men do hereby agree, in consideration of certain sums of money and goods to be paid to the said Creek nation by the government of the United States as hereafter stipulated, to cede and for ever quit claim, and do, in behalf of their nation, hereby cede, relinquish, and for ever quit claim unto the United States all right, title, and interest, which the said nation have or claim, in or unto a certain tract of land, situate between the rivers Oconee and Ockmulgee (except as hereinafter excepted), and bounded as follows, viz:

Beginning at the high shoals of Apalacha, where the line of the treaty of Fort Wilkinson touches the same, thence running in a straight line, to the mouth of Ulcofauhatche, it being the first large branch or fork of the Ockmulgee, above the Seven Islands: provided however, that if the said line should strike the Ulcofauhatche, at any place above its mouth, that it shall continue round with that stream so as to leave the whole of it on the Indian side; then the boundary to continue from the mouth of the Ulcofauhatche, by the water's edge of the Ockmulgee river, down to its junction with the Oconee; thence up the Oconee to the present boundary at Tauloohatchee creek; thence up said creek and following the present boundary line to the first mentioned bounds, at the high shoals of Apalacha, excepting and reserving to the Creek nation the title and possession of a tract of land, five miles in length and three in breadth, and bounded as follows, viz: beginning on the eastern shore of the Ockmulgee river, at a point three miles on a straight line above the mouth of a creek called Oakchoncoolgau, which empties into the Ockmulgee, near the lower part of what is called the old Ockmulgee fields—thence running three miles eastwardly, on a course at right angles with the general course of the river for five

miles below the point of beginning;—thence, from the end of the three miles, to run five miles parallel with the said course of the river; thence westwardly, at right angles with the last mentioned line to the river; thence by the river to the first mentioned bounds.

And it is hereby agreed, that the president of the United States, for the time being, shall have a right to establish and continue a military post, and a factory or trading house on said reserved tract; and to make such other use of the said tract as may be found convenient for the United States, as long as the government thereof shall think proper to continue the said military post or trading house. And it is also agreed on the part of the Creek nation, that the navigation and fishery of the Ockmulgee, from its junction with the Oconee to the mouth of the Ulcofauhatche, shall be free to the white people; provided they use no traps for taking fish; but nets and seines may be used, which shall be drawn to the eastern shore only.

2. It is hereby stipulated and agreed, on the part of the Creek nation, that the government of the United States shall for ever hereafter have a right to a horse path, through the Creek country, from the Ockmulgee to the Mobile, in such direction as shall, by the president of the United States, be considered most convenient, and to clear out the same, and lay logs over the creeks: and the citizens of said States shall at all times have a right to pass peaceably on said path, under such regulations and restrictions, as the government of the United States shall from time to time direct; and the Creek chiefs will have boats kept at the several rivers for the conveyance of men and horses, and houses of entertainment established at suitable places on said path for the accommodation of travellers; and the respective ferriages and prices of entertainment for men and horses shall be regulated by the present agent, col. Hawkins, or by his successor in office, or as is usual among white people.

3. It is hereby stipulated and agreed, on the part of the United States, as a full consideration for the land ceded by the Creek nation in the first article, as well as by permission granted for a horse path through their country, and the occupancy of the reserved tract, at the old Ockmulgee fields, that there shall be paid annually to the Creek nation, by the United States, for the term of eight years, twelve thousand dollars in money or goods, or implements of husbandry, at the option of the Creek nation, seasonably signified from time to time, through the agent of the United States, residing with said nation, to the department of war; and eleven thousand dollars shall be paid in like manner, annually, for the term of the ten succeeding years, making in the whole eighteen payments in the course of eighteen years, without interest: the first payment is to be made as soon as practicable after the ratification of this convention by the government of the United States, and each payment shall be made at the reserved tract, on the old Ockmulgee fields.

4. And it is hereby further agreed, on the part of the United States, that in lieu of all former stipulations in relation to blacksmiths, they will furnish the Creek nation, for eight years, with two blacksmiths and two strikers.

5. The president of the United States may cause the line to be run from the high shoals of Apalacha, to the mouth of Ulcofauhatche, at such time, and in such manner, as he may deem proper, and this convention shall be obligatory on the contracting parties as soon as the same shall have been ratified by the government of the United States.

VI. A treaty between the United States and the Cherokee nation of Indians, concluded at Tellico, the twenty-seventh day of October, 1805, and ratified by the president of the United States on the tenth day of June, 1806, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

Articles of a treaty between the United States of America, by their commissioners, Return J. Meigs and Daniel Smith, who are appointed to hold conferences with the Cherokees for the purpose of arranging certain interesting matters with the said Indians, of the one part, and the chiefs and head men of the Cherokees, of the other part.

1. Whèreas it has been represented by the one party to the other, that the section of land on which the garrison of South-West Point stands, and which extends to Kingston, is likely to be a desirable place for the assembly of the state of Tennessee to convene at (a committee from that body now in session having viewed the situation); now the Cherokees being possessed of a spirit of conciliation, and seeing that this tract is desired for public purposes, and not for individual advantages, reserving the ferries to themselves, quit claim and cede to the United States the said section of land, understanding at the same time, that the buildings erected by the public are to belong to the public, as well as the occupation of the same, during the pleasure of the government; we also cede to the United States the first island in the Tennessee, above the mouth of Clinch.

2. And whereas the mail of the United States is ordered to be carried from Knoxville to New-Orleans, through the Cherokee, Creek, and Choctaw countries; the Cherokees agree that the citizens of the United States shall have, so far as it goes through their country, the free and unmolested use of a road leading from Tellico to Tombigbee, to be laid out by viewers appointed on both sides, who shall direct it the nearest and best way; and the time of doing the business the Cherokees shall be notified of.

3. In consideration of the above cession and relinquishment, the United States agree to pay to the said Cherokee Indians sixteen hundred dollars in money, or useful merchandize at their option, within ninety days after the ratification of this treaty.

4. This treaty shall be obligatory between the contracting parties as soon as it is ratified by the president, by and with the advice and consent of the senate of the United States.

LIST OF THE LAWS AND PUBLIC ACTS OF THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE FIRST SESSION OF THE NINTH CONGRESS OF THE SAME.

AN act making an additional appropriation for the naval service, during the year 1805.

An act supplementary to the act making provision for the payment of claims of citizens of the United States on the government of France, the payment of which has been assumed by the United States, by virtue of the convention of the thirtieth of April, 1803, between the United States and the French republic.

An act making an additional appropriation to supply the deficiency in the appropiation for the naval service, during the year 1805.

An act to provide for light-houses in Long Island Sound; and to declare Roxbury, in the state of Massachusetts, to be a port of delivery.

An act making provision for defraying any extraordinary expences attending the intercourse bteween the United States and foreign nations.

An act making a further appropriation for the support of a library.

An act to repeal in part the fourth section of an act entitled an act to authorize a grant of lands to the French inhabitants of Galliopolis; and for other purposes therein mentioned.

An act for the relief of the governor, secretary, and judges of the late territory of the United States north-west of the river Ohio.

An act to suspend the commercial intercourse between the United States and certain parts of the island of St. Domingo.

An act authorizing the sale of a certain tract of land, in the town of Cincinnati, in the state of Ohio.

An act extending the powers of the surveyor general to the territory of Louisiana; and for other purposes.

An act declaring the consent of congress to an act of the state of Pennsylvania, intituled an act to empower the board of wardens for the port of Philadelphia to collect a certain duty on tonnage, for the purposes therein mentioned.

An act for altering the time for holding the circuit court, in the district of North Carolina; and for abolishing the July term of the Kentucky district court.

An act to extend jurisdiction, in certain cases, to state judges and state courts.

An act declaring the town of Jersey, in the state of New Jersey, to be a port of delivery; and for erecting a light-house on Wood Island or Fletcher's Neck, in the state of Massachusetts.

An act to incorporate the trustees of the presbyterian congregation of Georgetown.

An act declaring the consent of congress to an act of the state of South Carolina, passed on the twenty-first of December, 1804, so far as the same relates to authorizing the city council of Charleston to impose and collect a duty on the tonnage of vessels from foreign ports.

An act for the relief of Peter Landais.

An act to regulate the laying out and making a road from Cumberland, in the state of Maryland, to the state of Ohio.

An act for establishing rules and articles for the government of the armies of the United States.

An act relating to bonds given by marshals.

An act regulating the currency of foreign coins in the United States.

An act to regulate and fix the compensations of the officers of the senate and house of representatives.

An act directing the secretary of the treasury to cause the coast of North Carolina, between Cape Hatteras and Cape Fear, to be surveyed.

An act to provide for persons who were disabled by known wounds received in the revolutionary war.

An act to authorize the secretary of war to issue land-warrants; and for other purposes.

An act for the relief of Gilbert C. Russel.

An act to suspend the sale of certain lands in the state of Ohio, and the Indiana territory.

An act to prohibit the importation of certain goods, wares, and merchandize.

An act supplementary to the act making provision for the payment of claims of citizens of the United States on the government of France.

An act to authorize the state of Tennessee to issue grants and perfect titles to certain lands therein described; and to settle the claims to the vacant and unappropriated lands within the same.

An act authorizing a detachment from the militia of the United States.

An act making appropriations for the support of government for the year 1806.

An act making provision for the compensation of witnesses who attended the trial of the impeachment of Samuel Chase.

An act in addition to an act intituled an act supplementary to the act providing for a naval peace establishment; and for other purposes.

An act for the regulation of the times of holding the courts of the district of Columbia; and for other purposes.

An act for the temporary relief of Hamet Caramalli.

An act continuing in force, for a further time, the first section of the act intituled an act further to protect the commerce and seamen of the United States against the Barbary powers.

An act supplementary to an act intituled an act for ascertaining and adjusting the titles and claims to lands within the territory of Orleans and district of Louisiana.

An act respecting the claims to lands in the Indiana territory and state of Ohio.

An act to regulate and fix the compensation of clerks, and to authorize the laying out certain public roads; and for other purposes.

An act making appropriations for the support of the navy of the United States during the year 1806.

An act to provide for the adjustment of titles of land in the town of Detroit and territory of Michigan; and for other purposes.

An act making a further appropriation towards completing the south wing of the Capitol, at the city of Washington.

An act to amend, in the cases therein mentioned, the act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage.

An act in addition to an act intituled an act regulating the grants of land, and providing for the disposal of the lands of the United States, south of the state of Tennessee.

An act for fortifying the ports and harbours of the United States, and for building gun-boats.

An act for establishing trading houses with the Indian tribes.

An act for the punishment of counterfeiting the current coin of the United States; and for other purposes.

An act to repeal so much of any act or acts as authorize the receipt of evidences of the public debt, in payment for the lands of the United States; and for other purposes relative to the public debt.

An act for erecting certain light-houses in the state of Massachusetts; for building a beacon, or pier, at Bridgeport, in the state of Connecticut; and for fixing buoys in Pamptico Sound, in the state of North Carolina.

An act supplementary to the act intituled an act to extend jurisdiction in certain cases to the territorial courts.

An act making appropriations for carrying into effect certain Indian treaties.

An act making appropriations for the support of the military establishment of the United States, for the year 1806.

An act further to alter and establish certain post roads; and for other purposes.

Resolution expressive of the sense of congress of the disinterested and benevolent attentions of Nicholas C. Nissen, Esq. to captain Bainbridge, his officers and crew, while in captivity in Tripoli.

Treaty of peace and amity between the United States of America, and the bashaw, bey, and subjects of Tripoli, in Barbary.

A treaty between the United States of America, and the sachems, chiefs, and warriors of the Wyandot, Ottawa, Chipawa, Munsee and Delaware, Shawanee, and Pottawatima nations.

A treaty between the United States of America, and the tribes of Indians called the Delawares, Pottawatimies, Miamies, Eel river, and Weas.

Treaty between the United States of America, and the chiefs and head men of the Cherokee nation of Indians.

A convention between the United States and the Creek nation of Indians.

Treaty between the United States of America, and the chiefs and head men of the Cherokee nation of Indians.

REVIEW

OF

LITERATURE.

GENERAL CATALOGUE

AND VIEW OF

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS,

FOR THE YEAR 1806.

IT is the object of the following sketch to give a summary account of contemporary British literature, and to do this rather by classing and enumerating the various publications that appear within a given period, than by entering into any particular estimate of their merits, or any analytical detail of their contents. A particular review of each work might be easily given, carefully abstracted from the numerous critical journals issuing from the British press, and this abstract would doubtless be useful, but it would occupy the greater part of the present work, and exclude matter of much more relative importance. A small space must necessarily be assigned to it, and our duty will, we presume, be fully performed, if we compress into this space as much useful and important information on this subject as its narrow limits will admit.

English literature, beyond that of any other nation, may be represented as that of the whole world. The curiosity of that nation is such, that no work of general importance can make its appearance in any part of the civilized world without being speedily translated into English, and even the literature of our native country becomes English, by the republication of all important and valuable productions in Great Britain.

All publications have an absolute as well as relative value. Many of them, in all countries, relate to local occasions and temporary topics, and the interest they are calculated to excite, and the instruction they are adapted to convey, is small in one place, exactly in proportion as they are great at another. *We* are so intimately united with Great Britain in language, manners, law, religion, and commerce, that,

in a literary point of view, we may justly be regarded as members of the same society, as a portion of the same people. Many English publications which may be described as strictly local and temporary, excite as much curiosity in America as in Scotland or Ireland; and the whole annual produce of the British press being regularly transported to our shores, and furnishing almost the whole employment of our readers, British literature may truly be considered, so far as books are the property of their readers as well as of their writers, as likewise American. These considerations will justify the present design, and require us to make our catalogue as simple and minute as possible.

A mere catalogue of books, digested with a due regard to method, will serve at least as a guide and index for the information of the learned and inquisitive. Critical opinions are so much biassed and modified by the personal habits and prejudices of the critic, that they are seldom of any use to readers in general. No man, who is interested in the author or subject of a book, will be satisfied with the sentence of another. This sentence, indeed, considering the materials which must necessarily compose a professed critic, can hardly ever conform to the standard of abstract justice, but this conformity, even when it does take place, can be rarely of any practical utility. Each man reads what his own judgment, right or wrong, disposes him to approve, and what his own curiosity, formed and guided by accidents peculiar to himself, and generally, in some respects, different from that of all other men, renders interesting and important in his own eyes. To such readers all that is necessary is the guidance of a *rational* or analytical catalogue, and such we may venture to promise them, for, indeed, such only is consistent with the limits of the present work.

I.

It is the fashion of the present age to reduce all the branches of human knowledge into a single work, in which all the departments in this vast field are reduced to a certain number of heads, which heads are arranged in alphabetical order, and which are more or less particular, and are discussed more or less amply, according to the plan of the undertakers. This fashion commenced about the middle of the eighteenth century, and has been pursued with great industry in France, Germany, and Great Britain, ever since. Every few years has produced in England a new dictionary of the sciences. The novelty, indeed, in these works, consists chiefly in their bulk. One has been seldom any thing more than an abridgement or enlargement of another. Thus we have Cyclopædias or Dictionaries of Universal Knowledge, of all sizes, from five octavos to twenty or twenty-five quartos. As all branches of knowledge are cultivated with great success at present, every day adds to the stock, and this affords a convenient pretext for new projects of this kind, as well as a ground for claiming preference and distinction over all his predecessors to the last projector. That these claims are seldom well founded may be easily imagined, from the incapacity of general readers to judge of their validity, and from the

very nature and end of such projects, which are fully accomplished if the work be sold. Whether it be *read* or not, or approved or disapproved after it is read, is of no importance to the editors, who work for pay not fame, or to the publishers, who ask only for large orders and punctual payments. Such works must always be popular, because they sell knowledge in a cheap and convenient form, and though the latest, most ample, and most accurate of them will not fully satisfy any reader, yet the most meagre and defective will be of some use to all.

A new work of this kind was undertaken a few years ago, in London, called the New Cyclopædia. The principal editor is Dr. Abraham Rees, the editor of a former edition of Chambers' work, and large promises are as usual made, of accuracy, copiousness, and novelty. The principal difference, however, between this and the work that last preceded it, is in the elegance of the engravings which accompany it. This ornament of books has been for some time past rapidly improving, and the present work affords a striking specimen of that improvement. The whole work is to comprize from twenty to thirty volumes in quarto, of which seven were published at the close of the last year.

A minor work of the same kind was likewise publishing at the same time by Dr. G. Gregory.

II. NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

Every year, and almost every month produces some elementary work in Natural Philosophy. Persons engaged in education seldom content themselves with the humble sphere of their own school or class, but aspire to be authors, and thus to impart to other teachers and seminaries the benefits of their own system of instruction. Of works of this kind are the eight following:

M. Bryan's Lectures on Natural Philosophy.

Bonnycastle's Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. Bonnycastle is a well known and much valued compiler of works, subservient to mathematical instruction.

Letters, addressed to the Young, on Natural History, by John Bigland.

A Theoretical, Practical, and Descriptive Treatise on Mechanics, by Dr. Gregory.

A Chemical Catechism for the use of Young Persons.

Wernerea: or short characters of Earth and Minerals.

A System of Chemistry, by J. Murray of Edinburgh.

A short anonymous treatise, called Physical and Metaphysical Enquiries.

None of these works have much importance or novelty, or are likely to supersede former publications of the same kind.

Of the three illustrious associations, at London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, whose labours are chiefly confined to physical and mathematical science, those of London and Dublin have each published, this year, a volume of their memoirs. They contain as usual some original and valuable enquiries and experiments.

III. MEDICINE.

In that extensive circle of knowledge, which belongs to medicine, and in which there are always so many literary labourers, the yearly harvest is commonly abundant. Among the elementary or comprehensive works of this class, we may mention

J. J. Watt's Encyclopædia of Medicine, Surgery, Midwifery, &c., in a single small volume.

Manual of Health, a periodical work.

Dr. Keighley's New System of Family Medicine.

Turnbull's Naval Surgeon.

Dr. Cuming's Naval, Military, and Private Practitioner's Amanuensis, Medicus, and Chirurgicus.

Bell on the Principles of Surgery.

Abernethy's Surgical Observations.

On particular diseases or departments of medicine, we have the following treatises:

On a Remittent Fever, frequently occuring among British Soldiers, by Dr. Sutton.

On Consumption, by Dr. Reed.

On the Venereal Disease, by J. Howard.

On Epilepsy, and the use of the Viscus Guercinus in that Disease, by Dr. Frazer.

On the Hernia Humoralis, by T. Luxmore.

On Ophthalmia, by Dr. Edmundstone of Edinburgh.

On Insanity, from the French of Rinel.

On Urinary Gravel and Stone, on diseases of the Bladder and Prostate Gland, and on Strictures of the Urethra, by Mr. Johnston, surgeon of Edinburgh.

On the Internal uses of Cantharides, with remarks on Gleet, Leucorrhæa, and Obstinate Sores, by Mr. Robertson, Surgeon of Edinburgh.

On Morbid Poisons, by Dr. Adams.

On Indigestion, from the French of Daubenton.

On Abortion, by J. Burn.

On the Excision of Carious Joints, by Messrs. Parke, and Moreau, and Dr. Jefferies.

On the use of Sea Bathing, by J. Peake.

On the Anatomy of the Human Ear, and the causes of Deafness, by J. Saunders.

On the Functions and Diseases of the Stomach, by Dr. Stone.

On Diseases of the Abdominal Viscera.

On the Form of Animals, by T. Hunt.

On the Diseases of the Eye, by Scarpa.

On the Revolutions and Reform of Medical Science, from the French of Gabanis.

The Anatomy, Physiology, and Pathology of the Horse, by B. W. Burke.

On Insanity, by T. Arnold.

On the Malvern Waters, by J. Wall.

On the Uterine Hemorrhage, by I. Burr.

The great subject of vaccination has given birth this year to a diffuse and acrimonious controversy. Upwards of ten publications, more or less copious, have appeared upon this subject. The principal disputants are Drs. Thornton and Willan, Messrs. More, Jones, Blair, Birch, Rowley, Mosely, and Squirrel.

A short polemical war has likewise been carried on between Drs. Trotter and Dewar, on the means of destroying the fire and choak damps of coal mines.

The medical publications of all kinds, this year, amount to about forty, of which one or two only are new editions of old works, and two or three only are translations, which have also been confined to the French.

IV. THEOLOGY.

In England, the majority of those who may be stiled authors by profession, in all branches of knowledge, belong to the order of the clergy. On this account as well as from the interesting nature of the subject, theology is the topic of a great many of the books of the day. These obviously class themselves into elementary or didactic treatises or sermons, either single, on some temporary occasion, or in a numerous series. In this department we also frequently meet with translations of, or commentaries on the Scripture, with compilations from anterior publications, with new editions of popular works, and with controversial pieces, suggested by some contemporary event. On these various branches of this interesting subject we may enumerate the following publications of the year 1806:

The Apocalypse of St. John, translated with notes, by J. C. Woodhouse.

A second edition of Mr. Knight's translation of the Apostolical Epistles.

Translation of the Psalms, from the Hebrew, by Dr. Geddes.

Select Portions of the Psalms.

Select Parts of the Old and New Testaments, by T. Brown.

Exposition of the Book of Genesis, with Practical Reflections, by A. Fuller.

Dr. Taylor's Key to the Apostolic Writings abridged, by T. Howes.

Notes on the Revelation of St. John, by B. Butt.

Christ's Sermon on the Mount, with Explanations for the Young, by J. Eyton.

Selections from the Writings of St. Chrysostom, St. Gregory Nazianzen, and St. Basil, by H. S. Boyd.

Forty Sermons, from the Works of Dr. S. Clarke, by B. Clapham.

Christian Politics, by Eli Bates.

On the Excellence of Christian Knowledge, by F. A. Cox.

On the Kingdom of Christ, by J. Booth.

Letters from a Mother to her Daughter, on Religious and Moral Subjects, by M. S.

On the Evil Consequences of Disunion in Religion, by J. Symonds.

Prayers in Time of War and Public Danger.

Beneficial Effects of Christianity on the Temporal Concerns of Man, by Bishop Porteus.

A Call to Christians, on the Present State of the Jews, &c.

Dialogues on Christianity, for the use of the Young, by J. Jackson.

Vindication of Certain Passages in the Common Version of the New Testament, by C. Winstanley.

The Christian Officer's Complete Armour: or Evidences of Christianity, by Col. Burn.

Demonstrations of the Existence of God, from the French of Chateaubriand.

Letters on Various Religious Subjects, by W. Cooper.

Further Evidences of the Existence of the Deity, supplementary to Paley's Natural Theology, by G. Clarke.

On the Existence, Attributes, &c., of God, by D. Saville.

A System of Doctrinal and Practical Christianity, by E. Brackenbury.

A Complete History of the Bible, by G. Burder.

The Essence, Spirituality, &c., of the Religion of Christ, by S. Barnard.

New Harmony of the Gospels.

Jewish Prophecy, the Sole Criterion between Spurious and Genuine Scripture, &c., by T. Stone.

A Supplement to his Dissertation on the 1260 Years, in Reply to Mr. Whitaker, by G. Faber.

Delineation of the Leading Features of the Gospel, by N. Hoare.

Of series, or collections of sermons, the following may be noted:

New Sermons of Zallihoffer, from the German.

On Various Subjects, by T. Blundell.

Chiefly on Sacramental Occasions, by A. Shanks.

On Various Subjects and Occasions, by A. Grant.

On the Leading Doctrines of the Gospel, by E. Cooper.

On Important Subjects, by J. Wright.

Of single sermons, the list is too numerous and unimportant to be given here: many of them were preached on the national thanksgiving for the victory of Trafalgar; many of them are charges to the English clergy given by bishops and arch-deacons; some of them are biographical sermons, on occasion of the death of some noted person; and some are controversial. Some hundreds of sermons, suggested by some temporary or local topic, annually appear in Great Britain, few or none of which are to be found after the lapse of a few months.

Some sparks of the Priestleyan controversy were revived by T. Belsham, in a sermon on the death of Priestley, and by some publications in its defence.

A long and ardent controversy has arisen from the election of a mathematical professor at Edinburgh. The orthodoxy of the successful candidate, Mr. Leslie, has been arraigned by some of the Edinburgh clergy, and vindicated by some learned persons, as Playfair, Dugald, Stewart, &c.

V. LAW.

The law is another abundant source of publication. The most important branches of this subject are new statutes, and reports of new trials; these forming a real and essential addition to legal science. Interesting and important trials give rise to many publications, in which the merits of the cause are argued, in fugitive pamphlets, before the bar of the public, but most of the legal publications of the day are merely compilations, in which the only novelty, if any be displayed, consists in bestowing a new order on old materials.

Of digests, or systems, we have, this year, new works,

On the Bankrupt Law, by B. Montague.

On the Law of Executors and Administrators.

On the Statute of Frauds, with a Dissertation on Parole Evidence, by W. Roberts.

On the Law of Gaming, Racing, Wagers, &c., by J. Disney.

On the Duty of Parochial Officers.

On the Law of Venders and Purchasers (a new edition) by Mr. Tugden.

On Contracts, from the French of Pothier, with Additions, by M. D. Evans.

On the Property Act.

On the Law of Tythes, by F. Plowden.

On the Law at Nisi Prius.

On Conveyancing, by R. Preston.

On Contracts, within Chancery Jurisdiction, by J. Newland.

On Pleading in Civil Action, by E. Lewis.

On the Practice on the Equity Side of the Court of Exchequer, by S. Turner.

Of important or interesting trials, the proceedings have been published in the following cases:

Trial of Lord Melville: many controversial pamphlets on this subject.

—— of Governor Picton.

—— of Justice Johnston for a Libel.

—— of Admiral Sir R. Calder, before a Court Martial.

—— of Richard Patch, for the Murder of Mr. Blight.

—— of H. Stanton, Esq., before a Court Martial.

—— in the Case of Spooner and Atwood against Osborn and Amphlett.

Of reports in general we only meet with

Reports of Cases in the Irish Court of Chancery, under Lord Redesdale.

A project for reforming the process of the civil courts in Scotland has given rise to several publications, explaining the reigning system, and defending or accusing the proposed schemes of amendment.

VI. AGRICULTURE.

Few subjects are cultivated with more zeal and success, in Great Britain, than agriculture. These surveys and projects, on account of which the national establishment called the Board of Agriculture was created, appear to have been successfully prosecuted during 1806. The considerable publications on this subject are:

Communications to the Board of Agriculture, First Part of Fifth Volume.

Tenth Volume of Transactions of Bath Agricultural Society.

The following surveys were drawn up for the Board of Agriculture, and separately published:

Survey of Herefordshire, by J. Duncomb.

——— of East Lothian, by R. Somerville, Esq.

——— of Argyleshire, by J. Smith.

——— of Clydesdale, by J. Naismith.

A Complete System of Agriculture, by W. Dickson. A new improved edition.

Remarks on the Husbandry and Internal Trade of Bengal.

English Agriculture, as Practised on an Irish Farm, &c., by R. Parkinson.

Landmeasurer's and Farmer's Assistant, by J. Matthews.

On Watering Meadows, Draining, and Irrigating Peat Bogs, by W. Smith.

On Live Stock and Relative Subjects, by Professor Coventry, at Edinburgh.

On Mildew, by I. Egremont, Esq.

Farmer's Daily Journal.

Farmer's Account Book.

Tables for Computing the Weight of Hay, &c., by J. Ainsley.

VII.

On Useful Arts and Manufactures, we have the following publications.

Camus, on the Teeth of Wheels, Pinions, &c., from the French.

Genuine Art of Guaging, by P. Jones.

Memoirs of the Society for Maritime Improvement.

Concerning the Invention of the Life Boat, by W. A. Haits.

New Tables of Interest, Commission, Brokerage, &c., by W. Stonehouse.

The Ship-owner's Guide, on Fitting out Ships with Cordage.

A New Mode of Brewing Family Malt Liquors, by J. Rowlandson.

Young Surveyor's Guide, by J. Coates.

VIII. WORKS RELATIVE TO THE FINE ARTS.

Descriptions, with Engravings, of Egyptian Monuments, in the British Museum.

Britton's Architectural Antiquities, several numbers.

Etchings of Fragments of Ancient Sculpture, chiefly in Italy, by C. H. Tatham.

Smirke's Specimens of Continental Architecture.

Beauties of Antiquity, by J. Hassel, Nos. 1 and 2.

Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet, No. 1.

Antiquarian Repository, by T. Grose, and T. Astle.

Designs for Farm Buildings, by W. Barber.

Designs for Mansions, Casinos, Cottages, &c., by J. Randall.

Designs for Elegant Cottages, and Small Villas, by E. Gifford.

Observations on the Architecture of the Chief Buildings, Ancient and Modern, in France and Italy, by G. Tappin.

On the Cultivation and Present State of Fine Arts in England, by P. Hoare.

Hints for the Study of Landscape Painting.

On the Anatomy of Expression in Painting, by C. Bell.

The Works of W. Hogarth, by J. Nicholls and G. Stephens.

Observations on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening, by H. Repton.

Views in Suffolk, Norfolk, and illustrative of Bloomfield, by E. W. Brayley.

IX. POLITICAL ECONOMY.

On the Facility of Obtaining Commercial Credit.

The Doctrine of Equivalents, or Nature and Power of Money, by G. Crawford.

The Principles of Tranquillity, a New Institution, &c., by J. Bone.

Population of Dublin, in 1798 and 1804, by J. Whitelaw.

X. HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

History and biography are so nearly allied as to be in fact undistinguishable from each other. A narrative which is conversant with many individuals collectively, and considered under the relation of time and place is commonly called history, while narratives relating to a single person are said to be biographical. This classification we shall adopt on the present occasion.

GENERAL HISTORY.

Historical Dialogues for Young Persons.

Grammar of Ancient and Modern History, by J. Robinson.

The New Annual Register, for 1804.

The Annual Register, for 1804.

The Asiatic Annual Register, for 1804.

Compendium of Chronology, &c., for the Use of Linton School.

History of England, for the Use of Schools, by M. Baldwin.

Rise and Progress of the British Navy, by C. Derrick.

Froissart's Chronicle of England, France, &c., translated by T. Johnes.

General History of Ireland, by Gordon.

Journal of Scottish Transactions in 1570, &c., by R. Banatyne.

History of England, in Letters, by C. Smith.

History of Bonaparte, vol. 1.

History of Scotland, by Mrs. Helme.

A New Pantheon, or System of Ancient Mythology, by E. Baldwin.

Biographical History of England: a continuation of Granger, by himself and M. Noble.

History of the Belgian Republic, from the German of Schiller.

The British Neptune, &c., by W. Burney.

The Naval Heroes of Great Britain, by W. Burney.

Index to the Histories of Great Britain and Ireland, by R. Beatson.

History of New England, abridged, by H. Adams.

Inquiry into the Actual State of the (British) Nation.

State of France for the Last Three Years, relative to Belgium and British Prisoners, by J. Worsley.

On the Relative State of Great Britain and France, in 1806.

Considerations on the Catholic Petition, by Sir J. Throckmorton.

Present State of Europe, from the German of F. Gentz.

Strictures on Lord Selkirk's Remarks on the State of the Scottish Highlands, by R. Brown.

Proceedings of Pennsylvania Quakers for Civilizing the Ind ians North America.

Proceedings of Quaker Yearly Meeting at Baltimore, on the same undertaking.

Naval Anecdotes, &c.

Examination of the British Doctrine relative to Neutral Flags.

Letter of Lord Clive, in 1769, relative to Indian Affairs.

Inquiry into the Best Means of National Safety.

This year produced, besides the foregoing, a great number of controversial pamphlets, too many for enumeration, on the following topics:

The claims of the catholics to social and political equality, with other subjects of Great Britain;

The adverse pretensions of Britain and the neutral states, with respect to the freedom of trade;

The new system of finance, introduced by lord H. Petty;

Lord Selkirk's theory of population and internal improvement, in relation to Scotland;

The best system of military defence;

The justice and policy of the late wars in India;

The conduct of the prince of Wales, as censured by N. Jefferies; and

The clashing interests of candidates at the parliamentary election in 1806.

Of local history and topographical description we have the following specimens:

Magna Britannica, by D. and S. Lysons, volume first.

A Picture of Scotland, No. 1.

Picture of Edinburgh.
Picture of Glasgow.
Memorabilia of the City of Perth.
Picture of London.
The Hereford Guide, being a History and Description of that City.
The Canterbury Guide, being a History and Description of that City.
History and Antiquities of Stratford upon Avon.
History and Description of Exeter, by A. Jenkins.
History of Newark, by W. Dickinson.
A Walk through Leeds; a Description of that Town.
Account of Corsham House, Wiltshire, by J. Britton.
Descriptive Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, in 1804.
Excursion from London to Dover, by J. Gardiner.
Picturesque Guide to the Isle of Wight.
A Tour through the Orkney and Shetland Islands, by P. Neil.
Travels in Scotland, by J. Hall.
Notes on the West Indies, by J. Pinkard.
The West Indian Common-place Book, by Sir W. Young.
A Voyage to Cochin China, in 1792–3, by J. Barrow, Esq.
A Tour through Holland, France, and Switzerland in 1804–5.
A Picturesque Tour through Spain, by Swinburne.
Italian Scenery and Costume, in thirty-two plates.
Excursions in North America, by P. Wakefield.
Travels through France, Italy, &c., by J. G. Lemaistre.
Stranger in Ireland, by J. Carr, Esq.
Travels to Buenos Ayres, by A. Z. Helmes.
Recollections of Paris, by J. Pinkerton.
Forbes's Letters from France.

XI. BIOGRAPHY.

Biographical Index to the House of Commons in 1806.
Public Characters of 1806.
The Life of General Washington, by Judge Marshall.
A great number of lives of Lord Nelson, Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Fox, in general hasty, concise, or injudicious performances.
Some Account of the Life and Writings of Lope de Vega, by Lord Holland.
Memoirs of Dr Joseph Wharton, by J. Waal.
Memoirs of Dr. Priestley, by himself and his son.
Life of Thomas Dermoody, by J. O. Raymond.
Supplement to the Life of Cowper, by Hayley.
Life of Dr. J. Beattie, by Sir W. Forbes.
Memoirs of George Morland, Painter, by W. Collins.
Another, by W. Blagden.
Life of Chatterton, by J. Davis.
Memoirs of Mrs. Crouch, by M. J. Young.
Sketch of the Life of Dr. John Clarke, by J. R. Fenwick.

Memoirs of the Count de Hadt, by Borelli,
Memoirs of Dupuy, by himself,
Life of Lady Guion, by herself,
Memoirs of Lewis XIV, by himself,
} from the French.

Memoirs of Several Military Leaders, in the time of Charles I.

Lives of Cardinal Alberoni and the Duke of Reparda, by G. Moore.

Numerous biographical sketches of persons not generally known occur in the funeral sermons of the year, and by way of preface in collections of sermons of deceased persons.

XII. PLAYS.

New editions of Joanna Baillie's Plays.

A New Collection of Plays, with Biographical and Critical Notes, by Mrs. Inchbald.

Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice and As you Like It; a new edition with notes, &c.

The following new tragedies have been the produce of the year 1806:

Adelgitha, by G. Lewis.
Dion, by G. A. Rhodes.
Demetrius the Impostor, from the Russian.
Edgar, or Caledonian Feuds.
The Sultana, or Jealous Queen, by W. Gardiner.
The Fall of the Mogul, by T. Maurice.
Adrian and Orilla, by W. Diamond, Esq.
Fall of Mortimer, by Lord Rokeby.

COMEDIES, FARCES, &c.

The Travellers, or Music's Fascination, by A. Cherry.
A Hint to Husbands, by Cumberland.
The Laughable Lover, by Carrill O'Caustic.
The Invisible Girl, by T. E. Hooke.
Falls of Clyde, a Scottish dramatic pastoral.
Catch Him Who Can, by T. E. Hooke.
Five Miles Off, or Finger-post, by Dibdin.
The Vindictive Man, by Holcroft.
Tekeli, or Siege of Montgatz, by T. E. Hooke.

XIII.

Fictitious narratives, belonging to the class of novels and romances, are, as usual, extremely numerous. In this department, more than any other, the domestic consumption is supplied by importations from abroad. The following, directly or indirectly, from Germany, have been naturalized this year.

The Village of Friedewalde, by La Fontaine.
Siegwart, by J. M. Millar.
Wolf, or Bloody Tribunal, by Weber.
The Pastor's Daughter, by Kotzebue.

Nouvellettes, by the same.
The following are translations of new works, by Madame Genlis:
Madame de Maintenon.
The Impertinent Wife.
Alphonsine, or Maternal Affection.
Of the *home* productions, females appear to be the principal artists. The most respectable names are those of Opie and Edgeworth.
Leonora, by Miss Edgeworth.
Simple Tales, by Mrs. Opie.
Forest of St. Bernardo, by Miss Hamilton.
Vicissitudes Abroad, by Mrs. Bennett.
Antidelphine, by Mrs. Byron.
Vensenshon, or Love's Mazes, by Mrs. Butler.
Lady M'Laurin, by Mrs. Hunter.
Letters from the Mountains.
Sans Souci Park, by M. Tharmott.
Panorama of Youth, by M. Sterndale.
Convict, or Navy Lieutenant, by Mrs. Parsons.
Discarded Son, by A. M. Roche.
The Strangers, by Mrs. Norris.
Castle Nuovier, by Mrs. Manners.
The Wild Irish Girl, by Miss Owenson.
Adelaide, or Chateau de St. Pierre, by Mrs. Edgeworth.
Morland Manor, by Mrs. Kendall.
Violet Vale, or Saturday Night, by Mrs. Pilkington.
The following are by masculine authors, or by authors whose sex is doubtful:
Feudal Tyrants, by M. G. Lewis.
Winter in London, by T. Surr.
Mysterious Freebooter, or Days of Queen Bess, by Latham.
Human Beings, by the same.
Maid, Wife, and Widow, by H. Siddons.
Bravo of Bohemia, or Black Forest.
Monk of Dissentis.
Wilhelmina.
Constance de Lindensdorf, or Force of Bigotry.
The Cottager's Daughter.
Vivinio, or Hour of Retribution.
Conrade, or the Gamesters.
Castle of Tynemouth.
Polish Chieftain.
Secrets of the Castle, or Adventures of Charles D'Almagne.
Father and Son of De Claremont.
Last Man, or Omegarus and Syderia.
Zofloya, or the Moor.
Edward and Anna, or Picture of Human Life, by J. Bristed.
Two Girls of Eighteen.
Something Strange.
Sophia St. Clare.
Three Old Maids of Penruddock.

Dillingborough Castle, or Mysterious Recluse.
Invisible Enemy, or Mines of Wrelitzka.
Wood Nymphs.
Fire Side Stories, or Tales of Aunt Deborah and her Friends.
Stranger, or New Man of Feeling.
Mountbrasil Abbey, or Maternal Trials.
Constantia de Courcy.
Castle of Berry Pomeray.
Anglo Saxons, or Court of Ethelwald.
Donald, a Summer by Sea.
Simple Narrative, or Visit to the Newton Family.
Baron de Falkenheim.
Convent of Notre Dame, or Jeannette.
Charles Ellis, or the Friends.
Children of Error.
Santo Sebastiano, or Young Protectors.
Spaniard, or Pride of Birth.
Mask of Fashion.

XIV. POETRY.

Of productions in verse, the yearly harvest in England is always plentiful. Any memorable military event, or the death of any great personage is sure to draw forth hundreds of odes, epistles, and elegies. This year has been signalized by the battle of Trafalgar, and the deaths of Lord Nelson, Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Fox, and the poems published on these four occasions would form a little library. It would be useless to enumerate these performances, as it is probable they will, a twelve-month hence, have no existence but in such catalogues.

Among a vast heap of melodious rubbish, a lasting reputation, or even a temporary popularity is due only to the two following:

Epistles, Odes, and other Poems, by Thomas Moore.
Wild Flowers, or Pastoral and Local Poetry, by R. Bloomfield.

There have been several collections and translations of considerable value. The most respectable place is due to the author of the Lay of the Last Minstrel.

The Inferno of Dante, translated by T. Carey.
Works of Walter Scott, Esq.
Select Icelandic Poetry, with Notes, by W. Herbert.
Translations, chiefly from the Greek Anthology.
Lyre of Love, a collection.
Poetical Register, for 1804.

Of original works the most conspicuous are the following

Poems, by E. Rushton.
British Eclogue, for 1805, a Satire, by W. J. Andrè.
Poems, Original and Translated from Gesner, by R. Fellowes.
——— by R. Mant.
——— by W. A. Hailes.
——— by Quintin Frost.

Causes of French Revolution, and the Science of Governing an Empire, an epic, by G. Sanon.
Citizen, a Hudibrastic, and other poems, by E. Montague.
A Satire on the President of the Royal Academy.
Poems, by J. Graham.
———— Mr Polwhele.
———— A. Harrison Esq.
———— L. Halloran.
———— Mary Robinson, partly old.
———— C. Taylor.
———— Margaret Patrickson.
———— Thomas Holcroft.
———— W. C. Taylor.
———— D. Service.
———— F. Howes.
Trip to Margate, by W. Robinson.
Human Life, a didactic poem.
Palestine, an Oxford prize poem.
Sir Christopher Hatton's Ghost, &c.
Torio-whiggio-machio, &c.
Beechy Head, and other poems, by Charlotte Smith.
Admonition in Fashionable Dress, by G. Ogg.
Evening Walk in the Forest.
Legendary Tales, by E. Smith.
Daylesford.
Delusions of Hope.
The Bees, with notes, by J. Evans.
Signs of the Times.
Vaccinia, or Triumph of Beauty.
The Goodness of God, by W. Hart.
Poetical Translations, collected by Dr. Anderson.
Index to Warton's History of English Poetry.
Calliope, a Collection.
The Poetical Garland, a collection.

XV. PHILOLOGICAL WORKS.

A Supplement to Johnson's Dictionary, by J. Boucher.
Philologia Anglicana, or English Philological and Synonomical Dictionary, by B. Dawson.
A Greek English Derivative Dictonary, by Mr. Burke.
An Italian Dictionary, English and Italian, and Italian and English.
Pocket Dictionary of German and English, by W. Render.
A Guide to French Pronunciation and Orthography, by Tocquot.
Young Ladies' Assistant in writing French Letters.
Grammatical Introduction to the Hebrew, by J. W. Newton.
A New Spanish Dictionary, by H. Newman.
A Spanish Grammar, by E. Mordente.
A New English Grammar, by W. Ticker.

Elements, Accents, and Prosody of the English Language, by J. Odell.
On English Grammar, by Dr. Coote.
Flowers of Literature for 1805, by W. Blagdon.
Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, by Professor Baron of St. Andrews.
Evenings of Southell, by N. Salmon.
Exercises in Elocution, by J. V. Button.
Hours of Leisure, by Brewer.
Nonpareil, or Harmless Feast of Wit.
Anecdotes and Miscellanies, by Kotzebue, translated.
Extracts in Prose, from Spanish Authors.
On the Immoral and Antichristian Tendency of the Stage, by J. Styles.
Lessons on Theatrical Gesture and Action, from the German of Engle, by H. Siddons.
Cheronomia, or Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery, by C. Austin.

XVI. EDUCATION AND JUVENILE INSTRUCTION.

Historical Dialogues for Young Persons.
Grammar of History, Ancient and Modern, by J. Robinson.
A New General Atlas.
Letters to a Young Lady, by Mrs. West.
Letters to Dissenting Ministers, and Students for the Ministry, by Job Orton.
Introduction to the Game of Chess.
Humber's Juvenile Miscellany.
Christmas Fire-side, or Juvenile Critics, by S. Wheatley.
Arcana of Short-hand, by H. Ewington.
Class Books, or 365 Lessons for the Use of Schools, by D. Blair.
A Sequel to Mavors Spelling-book, by the same.
The Magic Lanthorn, or Amusing Exhibitions for the Young.
Leading Strings of Knowledge, &c., by E. Somerville.
Select Fables for Youth, from the French of Florian.
Present for an Apprentice, &c., by J. Watts.
Harmonic Pastimes, &c. by T. D. Morgan.
Letters to a Nobleman's Danghter, by Elizabeth Hamilton.
Friend of Youth, or Advice to Parents and Guardians.
Selections from the Works of Madame de Genlis.
A Scheme of Education for the Poor, by P. Colquhoun
Some controversial pieces, on the mode of education pursued by L. Lancaster.

XVII. MISCELLANEOUS.

Works of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, now first collected.
Tracts by Bishop Porteus, now first collected.
Works of A. Pirie, now first collected.
The Saunterer, Periodical Essays, by H. Clark.

Cleanings from Zimmerman's Solitude, by Mrs. Bayfield.
Censura Literaria, or Titles, &c., of Old Books, by S. E. Brydges.
Analysis of Aristotle's Logic, by T. Reid.
Oddities and Outlines.
Miseries of Human Life, or Groans, &c.
Select Epitaphs and Monumental Inscriptions, with Anecdotes, &c.
Asiatic Researches, vol. 8.
Bibliographical Miscellany, by Adam Clark.
Comforts of Human Life, or Smiles, &c.
Speeches of R. H. William Pitt.
British Indian Monitor, &c., by J. B. Gilchrist.
Alliance between Christianity and Commerce.
Oriental Customs, by S. Burder.
The Wild Sports of India.
Canine Gratitude, or Anecdotes of the Dog, by J. Taylor.
Pocket Volume of Homer, a Collection of Epigrams, Repartees, &c. &c., by J. Taylor.
Introduction to the Study of Moral Evidences, &c., by J. E. Gumbeer.
Independent Man, or Essay on the Faculties which constitute Mental Excellence.
On Forming and Improving Country Residences, by J. Loudon.
Physics of Aristotle, with Notes, by T. Taylor.

The foregoing catalogue cannot be supposed to be perfectly complete, because literary works are published in many provincial towns of Great Britain, and no compiler of catalogues is exempt from inaccuracies and omissions. We may venture, however, to say, that these lists have omitted no publication of any durable importance, and are guilty of very few omissions of any kind. Many pamphlets upon temporary topics are well written, but we have omitted these, merely because they are of a temporary nature, and because they would disproportionably extend this article.

It appears by the foregoing lists, that, exclusive of fugitive poems, pamphlets on temporary topics, single sermons, the British publications, for the year 1806, amount to about four hundred and thirty-five. It would be difficult to estimate the degree of novelty or value of these productions, or the real addition they have made to the mass of knowledge or the means of entertainment.

Several important points in natural history and philosophy are successfully discussed by the correspondents of the royal society of London.

Much new light has been thrown, by the publications on that subject, on the nature of the vaccine disease.

Many useful experimental observations are detailed in some of the enumerated works on surgery and medicine.

The compilations of the lawyers are destitute of novelty, and the details of new cases and trials, this year, are little interesting or instructive.

On theological subjects, Zollikoffer and bishop Porteus are probably the only writers who have added to the mass of such reading

as will long be read. Though the other argumentative or ethical works contain little essential novelty, yet, by presenting anew to the public what is antiquated and forgotten, their influence is beneficial, and much the same as if they were absolutely new. On moral and religious subjects, indeed, there is little room for new dicoveries or arrangements, and the literature of one year is seldom more than a transcript, with unessential variations, of that of former years.

To the theory of the most useful of arts, agriculture, every year adds something; enquiries and experiments are continually going on, and the publications of the numerous societies formed for the improvement of it afford convenient vehicles for disseminating the information obtained by particular persons. Several important works have been published this year, throwing light upon the actual state of parts of Great Britain, with respect to agriculture and domestic economy. No country in the world has been so accurately and comprehensively surveyed as Great Britain, and this year has added to the former stock a variety of topographical descriptions.

The fine arts, especially that branch of them which relates to buildings, are assiduously cultivated. Many valuable works have been published for the information of the architect. The passion for ancient buildings is still prevalent, and is gratified by new illustrations and researches, or by new arrangements and divisions of those already published.

The work of Mr. Bell on the anatomy of painting, and of Mr Repton on landscape gardening, are highly curious and valuable.

In the descriptions of foreign countries, published this year, there is not much depth or novelty. The embassy to China has given birth to another work of the industrious and ingenious Mr. Barrow, in which something new and important is related of Brazil and Cochin China. Pinkard has given a few gleanings of the West Indies, and Pinkerton, Lemaistre, and Forbes have furnished us with some intelligence respecting the present state of France. The two former, however, with Carr in Ireland, and Helms in South America, are very meagre, superficial, and unsatisfactory.

The mere lapse of time, by terminating the career of important persons, necessarily adds valuable matter to the treasures of previous biography. The principal works that have appeared this year, in this department, are the lives of Washington, Priestley, and Beattie.

In no age of the world are historical documents more numerous, familiar, and authentic, in relation to passing events, than at present. These form the most valuable productions of the time, and form the basis of innumerable periodical works. The most valuable, among the publications regularly historical, is Gordon's History of Ireland. Among translated works of this kind, Schiller's Belgic History and Froissart's Chronicles are most worthy of attention. Indeed they are the only historical translations in the catalogue.

In works of imagination, the vanity of writers and the cravings of readers give birth to an immense catalogue. In this department, to execute is more easy, but to execute well is harder, than in any other: hence, while the quantity is always abundant, the general quality is ne-

cessarily very poor. Except some new productions of the three popular poets, Moore, Bloomfield, and Scott, we have nothing in verse that possesses any chance of surviving till the next generation.

Eight tragedies and nine comedies have made their appearance this year. Among their authors occur the well known names of Cumberland, Holcroft, and Cherry, and, last and least, Dibdin. There is, however, in the list, no production of sterling merit.

Of novels, we may count up near seventy new ones in 1806. Of these, eight or ten are imported. The foreign manufacturers, in greatest vogue still continue to be madame Genlis, La Fontaine, and Kotzebue. These indefatigable artists pursue their vocation with all their customary diligence, and their handywork is still fashionable in England. Among native artists, the majority are females, and seven or eight names appear in this year's list, as Edgeworth, Opie, Owenson, Bennet, Parsons, Hunter, Roche, with which fashionable readers have been familiar for several years. The two former can write nothing which is not highly estimable. Miss Owenson has, this time, acquired no small popularity by her *Wild Irish Girl*, in consequence of the advantage, adroitly taken, of national prepossessions. Surr and Latham are names of most note, among the man-novelists of this year, and, if we regard only their *relative* height in the scale, they undoubtedly merit distinction. The castle, abbey, and forest, and barons, monks, and pilgrims are not yet entirely out of vogue with the dealers in fiction.

Among the philological works of the year, the only performance that merits notice is Baron's Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. This work has not only comparative but positive merit of a very eminent kind.

Book-makers continue to be still extremely industrious in supplying the rising generation with grammars, dictionaries, and books of lessons. The prospect of commercial intercourse with South America seems to have brought the study of the Spanish language more into fashion than formerly. Schemes of education are likewise produced in considerable numbers, but on this head the public attention seems to have been chiefly attracted by the projects for instructing the poor recommended by Mr. Colquhoun, and reduced to practice by Mr. Lancaster.

The Life of Washington, Hannah Adams's Abridgement of New England History, the details of the measures adopted by the *Friends* for improving the condition of the Indians, and some controversial pieces on the subject of neutral trade, are the only recent American productions that have been this year republished or circulated in Great Britain. The learned and curious, however, wait with impatience for the result of those expeditions set on foot by our government, for exploring the central and western regions of North America.

The genuine literary state of Great Britain is very imperfectly exhibited by one who entirely overlooks the periodical publications of the time. These have a much more extensive circulation than any other kind of works; they are cheaper in proportion to their bulk, and, be-

sides a good deal of original matter, they contain, under various forms, diurnal, weekly, monthly, quarterly, and annual, the essence of all other publications, together with the whole contemporary history of the world. The paper and printing employed in periodical works greatly exceed those consumed in all other publications put together. Other works would be in some measure useless and unread without their assistance. The heavy gross work, left to itself, would stagnate and moulder in obscurity, but, sifted, divided, new moulded, and stamped by periodical publishers, if flies abroad with wonderful celerity, and penetrates to corners which otherwise it would never have reached.

The British periodical works are either newspapers, magazines, or reviews. The first are published in every considerable town in the kingdom, and are read, more or less, by all that can read. The second are distinguished not only by being published in different places, but by relating to different departments of knowledge. The same distinction applies to reviews. Several magazines and reviews are published at London: one at Oxford: another at Edinburgh. One set relates to natural philosophy, another to medical science, a third to theatrical affairs, a fourth to poetry, a fifth to husbandry and farming, a sixth to theological topics, a seventh to music, an eighth to antiquities.

There are also a great number of literary and scientific fraternities, who periodically publish the learned lucubrations of their members. These add considerably to the mass of popular and current reading, and familiarize useful knowledge to the most indolent and trifling part of mankind. These associations are constantly increasing. They have been successively formed at London, Dublin, Edinburgh, and Manchester, and will in a few years be found, no doubt, in every great city in the British empire. Even in the British settlements in India, there are found periodical compilations, and a learned society, which publishes its transactions.

It would not be easy, and is not necessary, to give a complete catalogue of these productions. The above slight and general view must suffice.

A SKETCH

OF

AMERICAN LITERATURE,

FOR 1806–7.

LET us suppose a stranger to be merely informed that the American states composed a nation of five or six millions of persons, enjoying all the ordinary benefits of civilization and refinement, unattended with that poverty and ignorance in the lower classes, and with that sloth, pride, and luxury in the upper ranks, commonly met with in other nations, and as generally enlightened by an elementary and useful education, as the people of European states. Such an observer would probably conclude that there was annually a considerable harvest of original literary and scientific productions among us. He would imagine that in so large and thriving a community, a few hundreds of persons would be found, to whom the industry of their fathers had secured a decent competence, and whom a liberal education or inquisitive temper would lead to employ their leisure in some favourite course of study. The habit of writing is so natural and serviceable to the studious, and the vanity so general that leads us to publish what we write, that it might naturally be suspected that a few of this class would publish their learned and ingenious labours. There are some propensities too, so strong, that neither want will extinguish, nor drudgery divert the mind from them. Of this kind is a poetical spirit, and a stranger might suppose that, among a people so numerous and enlightened, the lapse of ten or twenty years would produce a few poets, sufficiently ambitious and popular to produce a few annual volumes. As necessity, however, is the strongest impulse to literary, as well as all other kinds of invention and industry, it might be supposed that book-making would in some few cases be pursued merely as a trade, as a method of subsistence, and that some few original works might be produced, from the same humiliating yet salutary impulse

which made Johnson, Goldsmith, and Dryden authors. How far are these expectations and suspicions justified by our experience? how far does the harvest of American literature agree with those views which arise merely from the consideration of our numbers, our wealth, and our means of knowledge?

This point is not easily settled, because our previous expectations would be different, according to the choice we should make of the standard of comparison. A great many original works annually appear in Britain and in northern Germany. A much smaller proportion appears in Holland and northern Italy. A still smaller in France, and a smaller still in southern Italy, southern Germany, Portugal, and Spain: with which of these shall we compare the American nation. We certainly produce fewer original works than the five first mentioned, but the superiority is probably on our side, proportional numbers being duly considered, if we compare ourselves with the four nations last mentioned.

Ill-informed persons might draw many erroneous inferences from the scarcity of original books among us. In the first place, it might be hastily supposed that we were very imperfectly supplied with books, and that we wanted either the faculty, the inclination, or the opportunities to read; and yet this is by no means true. America is probably as great a mart for printed publications as any country in the world; the proportion of readers is probably not exceeded even in Germany or England. The press is no where more extensively employed, nor knowledge more widely and equably diffused. Nay, paradoxical as it may seem, though there are few *books* of original speculation among us, there is an enormous quantity of original *publication*. A vast number of pens are constantly busy, but circumstances oblige them or incline them to be satisfied with brief essays, in daily newspapers and gazettes.

Our notions on this head will be more accurate by reflecting, that the American states are, in a literary view, no more than a province of the British empire. In these respects we bear an exact resemblance to Scotland and Ireland. Our language, manners, and pursuits are even more English than those of the two last mentioned countries. Our commercial intercourse, including the trade in books, is not less extensive, easy, and frequent. Books flow in upon us from the great manufactory of London, in the same manner as they make their way to Bristol, York, Edinburgh, and Dublin. As the inhabitants of these cities get their books from London, their cloths from Manchester, and their hardware from Birmingham, so do those of Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, and the importation and consumption in all these articles is such in the American towns, as to place them by no means in a rank below that of the British provincial capitals, in refinement, luxury, and knowledge.

If we were to estimate the genius and knowledge diffused throughout a nation by the number of its original publications, we should commit an egregious error. We are led into this error by not sufficiently reflecting on the nature of the common publications which appear in a book-making nation. The literary harvest in such nations

consists almost entirely of *translations*, in which of course there is nothing but a manual or mechanical vocation; of *inventions* either in verse, or prose, that obtain only momentary regard, and to write or read which is mere trivial pastime; of *systems* and *methods* in which there is nothing absolutely new, unless it be the order in which particulars are placed; and of *history* thrown into new forms, but very rarely gaining any thing, in light or perspicuity, by the new arrangement. We shall indeed be astonished, in examining a catalogue of annual publications, in Great Britain for example, to perceive how little there is truly original; and of that which is truly original, how much is trivial, or dull, or local, or temporary, and how small a display is made, upon the whole, of either eloquence, imagination, genius, or judgment.

With regard to American publications, however, most enquirers are wholly unacquainted with their real amount. The theatre is, indeed, so wide, and the manufacture, if we may so speak, is pursued in so many places, that it is extremely difficult to collect or frame a correct catalogue. In Great Britain, almost all publications of any value appear in London. In America, there are twenty or thirty towns, maritime and inland, and some of them situated at opposite corners of the empire, in which books are occasionally printed. New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, carry on the chief trade, but they are perhaps nearly equal to each other in the extent to which this trade is carried by them. It is found, even in Great Britain, extremely difficult to obtain a full and accurate list, but this difficulty must, for the reasons just mentioned, be much greater in America. Under any omissions of this kind, however, we are consoled by reflecting, that it cannot extend to any work of much importance or wide circulation. In the following pages we shall endeavour to form a short list of American publications, which have appeared within six or eight months prior to to the month of June, in the present year. A particular account or analytical display of each work could only be attempted by one whose vanity should grasp at the praise of universal knowledge, and whose industry was equal to the careful perusal of so many volumes.

In America, as in England, the three professions of law, medicine, and divinity, are the chief regular consumers of books. To these classes respectively the greater number of books, imported, republished, or originally written, may be reduced.

The law is a very prosperous and gainful profession in the United States. It has probably a greater number of votaries, in proportion to the whole community, than in any other country. As our system is the common and statute law of England, built upon by the decrees of our local legislatures, and the decisions of our domestic tribunals, there is occasion for all the learning and all the books of the British lawyer, in addition to statutes and reports of our own. Each state has a peculiar constitution and laws, and the United States collectively has, in like manner, a code of its own. To every American advocate, therefore, there is a threefold object of attention, the laws of England, the laws of his own state, and the laws of the United States, and his library is amply furnished from these three sources, in proportion to his

wealth and his curiosity. There is much more than a million of volumes of law, at this time dispersed in the libraries of our lawyers, and as population is rapidly increasing, the annual supply must not only correspond with the annual waste, but keep pace with a rapid increase in the number of advocates. The reports of recent or contemporary cases, decided in Great Britain, are studied, as affording convenient illustrations, at least, if they do not constitute binding precedents to the American practitioner, and these are therefore imported as fast as they appear. In like manner the new compilations of any value, published in Europe, find their way immediately to America, and, if recommended by any uncommon solidity or novelty, are republished. Most of the elementary books being in perpetual request, frequently undergo new editions; and this branch of republication, as might be expected, is constantly increasing.

Within the above-mentioned period there has appeared a translation, by William Johnson, of New York, of a treatise on the maritime law of Europe, by Azuni. The writer was a judge in a French maritime or commercial court, and possessed a high reputation for learning and candour. His theory, as might be expected from his nation and post, is unfavourable to the naval claims of the British, and the great interests which at present depend upon the exertion of these claims, with regard to neutral nations, must render this work deserving of particular regard. Indeed, on this subject, a kind of controversy has been carried on between Britain and America, within the last two years, and, besides many copious essays in newspapers, we have had several learned pamphlets on the subject.

Short as has been the duration of the federal government, and the tribunals created by it, several works have already appeared, containing reports of decisions in these courts.

A second volume of Reports of Cases determined in the Supreme Court of the United States, compiled by William Cranch, chief justice of the circuit court of Columbia district, has appeared within this period.

We have likewise two works of this kind, relating to provincial or state tribunals. One of these is

Reports of Cases determined in the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia, decided in the Superior Court of Chancery, for the Richmond District, by W. W. Hening and W. Munford. The second is

Reports of Cases, argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Judicature of the State of New York, by William Johnson.

These works are, all of them, parts of a series, and their value to the profession is sufficiently evident. The last mentioned author is official reporter to the court, whose decisions he compiles.

T. B. Wait of Portland has published, Rules of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, and Regulations of Attornies.

Collinson Reed of Philadelphia has published a useful book, for the benefit of the profession in Pennsylvania, called, American Pleader's Assistant, being a collection of Forms for Declarations, Writs, Returns, &c. We were formerly presented, by the same hand, with an Alphabetical Digest of the Laws of Pennsylvania.

Accounts of particular trials commonly derive their interest, not so much from the points of law which are involved in them, as from the notoriety of the persons or the singularity of the events which give rise to them. Of these, several of much importance have occurred within this period. The first place is due to

A Full Statement of the Trial and Acquittal of Aaron Burr, Esq., before the Federal Court at Frankfort, Kentucky, Nov. 25, 1806, by John Wood.

The Trials of W. S. Smith and S. G. Ogden, for Misdemeanors, in the Circuit Court of the United States for the New York District, by Thomas Loyd.

These cases are of great importance, as connected with two great public transactions: the conspiracy against the United States, imputed to Aaron Burr, and the expedition of Miranda to South America. The following are of a private nature:

Trial in the Case of Philip Arcularius against William Coleman, for a Libel; at New York, January 3, 1807, by William Sampson, Esq.

Trial of William Hardy, for the Murder of an Infant, before the Supreme Judicial Court at Boston, in March, 1807.

Facts and Documents in the Case of Captain Joseph Loring, Jun., and also the Proceedings of the last Court Martial, with a Vindication of the Legislature of Massachusetts.

Trial of Thomas O. Selfridge, for killing Charles Austin, on the Public Exchange, at Boston, August 4, 1806, by Thomas Loyd and George Caines, Esq.

A Statement of the Whole Preliminary Controversy between T. O. Selfridge and Benj. Austin, with a Brief Account of the Catastrophe in State-street, on the 4th of August, 1806, with Remarks, by T. O. Selfridge.

Trial of Andrew Wright, on an Indictment for Libels against Governor Strong of Massachusetts; before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, September, 1806.

The medical sciences may be said to flourish in the United States. The profession is distinguished by their learning, if we limit that praise to a perfect acquaintance with the latest improvements and discoveries in the various branches of their art. There is, accordingly, a great importation of the newest medical works from Europe, and many of these, as well as of the standard elementary books, are annually republished in America.

The great medical school is at Philadelphia. In the university of that city medical instruction is imparted by several very eminent professors; among whom the names of Rush and Barton, the former in the practice of physic, and the latter in botany, have acquired extensive reputation as authors. Above two hundred students annually resort to this city.

The number of original works in this department, however, is remarkably small. The following is all that we meet with, belonging to this period:

Mr. Agnews, of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, has given us a Practical Treatise on the Efficacy of Kine-pock Inoculation, as a Preventive of the Small-pox. In this short performance the new system is warmly and judiciously recommended.

Dr. Caldwell, of Philadelphia, has published An Anniversary Oration on the Subject of Quarantines, delivered before the Medical Society of Philadelphia, in January, 1807, which may be referred to the great controversy respecting the origin of yellow fever: a controversy carried on for many years with great ardour and intemperance, but now, from mere weariness in the combatants, almost entirely at rest. Dr. C. is an enemy to quarantines, and denies the communication of disease from one country to another.

The same writer has likewise given us a translation from the French of Alibert's Treatise on Malignant Intermittents, with an Introduction, Notes, and an Appendix concerning the Yellow Fever of 1805, in Philadelphia.

Though formal treatises and systems on medical subjects are thus unfrequent in America, considering the little novelty or value these publications usually contain, this scarcity is perhaps not to be regretted. Science is much more advanced by adding particular facts and occasional experiments to the mass of existing knowledge. It is thus, that the Memoirs of the French Institute, and the Transactions of the Royal Society in London, contain almost all the real improvements of the age, in natural and mathematical philosophy. We are not without many philosophical fraternities in America, but the only one of these whose memoirs we have met with, during the present period, is the Massachusetts Medical Society. A volume of Memoirs of this Society has been published at Salem. There are, however, three periodical works devoted to medical and philosophical subjects. The oldest of these is published at New York, by Drs. Mitchell and Millar, and called the Medical Repository. Two others, of later origin, are published at Philadelphia, one by professor Barton, under the title of the Philadelphia Medical and Physical Journal, and the other by Dr. J. R. Coxe, and is called the Philadelphia Medical Museum. These works are conducted with diligence and skill, and much valuable information is preserved in them.

The general interest which is felt in all subjects connected with religion, occasions the importation and publication of more religious works in America, than of works of any other kind. There are likewise more original performances in this, than in any other department. These, however, are commonly no more than pamphlets, and for the most part sermons. These are drawn forth sometimes by particular occasions, as the death of some eminent man; a removal from one church or meeting house to another; the call or appointment of some charitable institution; or the ordination of a minister; and sometimes are merely polemical, or didactic.

We meet with separate discourses occasioned by the death of the following persons:

Of General William Moultrie, preached at Charleston, S. C., October 15, 1805, by Dr. W. Hollingshead.

Of Captain J. Parsons, preached at Newburyport, before the Newburyport Marine Society, by John Murray.

Of Joseph Brown and James Jenness, delivered, in two Discourses, on September 10 and 15, 1806, at Hampton, N. H., by the Rev. Mr. Pidgin.

Mrs. Lydia Fisk, delivered at Wrentham, by Dr. Emmons.

Deacon Peter Whiting, delivered at Franklin, N. H., on December 15, 1806, by the same.

Mrs. Rachel Smith, at Falmouth, Massachusetts, by Mr. H. Lincoln.

Of Dr. S. Stillman, delivered at Boston, March 10, 1807, by Dr. Baldwin.

Of Mrs. Mary Yates, preached at Hartford, Connecticut, November 3, 1806, by Abel Flint.

Of the Rev. Dr. James Caldwell, on January 6, 1807, at Hartford, by Dr. Strong.

Of Oakes Shaw, at Barnstable, on February 14, 1807, by Mr. Jonathan Burr.

Of Mr. J. Cushing, at Ashburnham, May 22, 1806, by Seth Payson.

The following are ordination sermons:

By Ezra Styles Ely, preached on Occasion of his own Ordination.

By Joseph Lee, at the Ordination of W. B. Wesson, October 30, 1803.

By Elijah Parrish, at the Ordination of Nathan Waldo, at Williamstown, Vermont, February 26, 1806.

By Theophilus Pacard, at the Ordination of J. W. Cannon, at Gill, Massachusetts.

At the Ordination of S. Gile, at Milton, February, 1807.

Of sermons on various occasions, the following may be mentioned:

Mr. J. S. Popkin's two Sermons on entering the New Meeting-house, at the First Parish of Newbury, with a Historical Account of the Parish and its Ministers, from its First Settlement.

Mr. E. Parrish's Sermon, preached near Dartmouth College, on the Sabbath next before commencement.

Dr. Prince's before the Salem Female Charitable Society, September 17, 1806.

Mr. Merrill's, before the Baptist Association at Lincoln.

Dr. Barnard's, before the Society for propagating the Gospel among the Indians and Others in North America, at Salem, November 6, 1806.

Dr. J. H. Livingstone's, before the New York Missionary Society, April 3, 1804, with an Appendix of Papers relating to American Missions.

Mr. Wadsworth's, at the Dedication of the Brick Meeting-house, at Danvers, November 20, 1806.

Mr. Porter's, at the Dedication of the New Academy, at Fryburg, June 4, 1806.

The following are didactic or controversial publications, of a religious nature:

Elder John Leland's Politics Sermonized, exhibited at Ashfield, July 4, 1806.

Elder Simeon Stove's Free Communion of all Christians at the Lord's Table, with a Short Specimen of the Proceedings of the Baptist Church and Council, in their Labour with, and withdrawing Fellowship with the Author.

Mr. Field's Strictures on Seven Sermons, by Mr. Merrill, with an Appendix, on the Modes and Subjects of Baptism.

Mr. Baldwin's Baptism of Believers only, and the Particular Communion of the Baptist Churches explained and defended.

Mr. Booth's Abridgement of Abadie's Translation of a Treatise on the Divinity of Christ, originally in French.

Mr. Rowland's Epitome of Ecclesiastical History.

Christianity Displayed, or a Rational View of the Scripture Doctrine of Redemption and Salvation, by a Citizen of Baltimore.

Catechism of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America.

Mr. Stanford's Domestic Chaplain, or Fifty-two Short Lectures, with Appropriate Hymns to each.

Dr. Dana's Observations on Baptism.

Mr. Stanford's Collection of Hymns for Youth.

Mr. Bonar's Genuine Religion the Best Friend of the People, or the Influence of the Gospel on the Manners and Happiness of the People.

Mr. Osgood's Letter on the Subject of Episcopacy.

Mr. Weeks's Farewell Sermon, recommending Sobriety, Watchfulness, and Prayer, delivered at Waterbury, Connecticut, December 21, 1806.

Mr. Merrill's Letters, in answer to Mr. Worcester's Discourses on the Perpetuity and Provision of God's Gracious Covenant with Abraham and his Seed, &c.

Mr. Austin's Essay on the Human Character of Jesus Christ.

In addition to these we must mention two periodical works, of a religious nature, one entitled The Christian Monitor, and the other The Christian's Magazine. The former is published at Boston, and the latter at New York.

Except the sermon on the death of Moultrie, at Charleston, a single religious treatise published at Baltimore, and five publications of the same kind at New York, all the theological productions, in the foregoing list, are published in New England. The reigning controversies seem to be confined to the subject of baptism.

Several short performances have appeared under the title of *orations*, some of them delivered on the anniversary of independence, and others on some local occasion.

Several original works have appeared, connected with the education of youth. This, indeed, is a considerable source of publication, and affords its chief employment to the American press. We are every

day lessening our debt in this respect to Great Britain, and supplying the demands of schools from our own presses.

At Portsmouth, New Hampshire, has been published by Mr. Pierce, a small volume, with the splendid title of The Arts and Sciences Abridged, with a selection of pieces from celebrated modern authors.

Noah Webster, a well known writer, has published the third volume of his Elements of Useful Knowledge.

An anonymous writer at New York has presented the ladies with The Mental Flower Garden, or an Instructive and Entertaining Companion for the Fair Sex.

There has also appeared, at the same city, The Juvenile Spelling-book, being an Easy Introduction to the English Language.

The following medley, published at Boston, can scarcely be referred to any distinct class of literature. A New Classical Selection of Letters, interspersed with some original productions, on Business, Duty, Friendship, &c. To which is annexed, Petitions on Various Subjects, and the Declaration of Independence.

D. L. Cotineau, teacher of geography, has published at Norfolk, in Virginia, a Geographical Compilation for the use of Schools, being an accurate description of all the empires, kingdoms, &c., in a catechetical form.

Mr. Rand of Northampton, Massachusetts, has published the Voice of the Turtle, a selection of devotional pieces in verse and prose, being exercises of young converts.

Music is a principal branch of female education among us, and there is a constant demand for many publications of this kind. In most of our cities, the press is always busy in re-printing elementary pieces for beginners, and the new popular productions as fast as they arrive from Europe. The following musical works are all that deserve mention:

Mr. Belknap's Village Compilation of Sacred Music, or, a hundred and forty pieces of music calculated for divine worship; besides a number of set pieces for occasional purposes.

The first number, by U. K. Hill, of Boston, of the Sacred Minstrel, or, an introduction to psalmody, a practical essay on modulation, and a collecti on of sacred music, suitable for religious worship.

Among poetical productions we have noticed only the few following, of sufficient bulk or importance to compose separate publications.

The Rev. Chancey Lee, of Colebrook, has published at Hartford, Connecticut, The Trial of Virtue, a sacred poem; or a paraphrase of the book of Job, and designed as an explanatory comment on that work, with critical notes, and a dissertation on the book of Job.

At Charleston, S. C., Mr. J. B. White has published a dramatic poem, entitled The Mysteries of the Castle, or the Victims of Revenge.

L. M. Sargeant, of Boston, has published a translation of the Culex of Virgil.

Mr. Sewal, of Portsmouth, N. H., has published a small collection of poems, with some specimens of a reduction into metre of Ossian's rhapsodies.

At New York has appeared a collection of poems, by R. B. Davis, a deceased poet.

There is nothing in this list of any permanent value. Few passages reach the praise of mediocrity, and mediocrity itself, in poetry, affords no pleasure, though it may succeed in not disgusting us.

American politicians generally confine their labours to the columns of a newspaper; occasionally, indeed, a pamphlet appears, but their circulation is restricted commonly to narrow limits, both as to time and space. They are usually connected with the affairs of an individual state, and hence are uninteresting and unintelligible to general readers. They are, likewise, commonly deeply stained with the virulence of faction; they reflect disgrace upon the manners of the nation, and a regard to the reputation of our country should hinder us from saying any thing to prevent or retard their descent to that oblivion to which they are finally destined.

We meet with no publications, within this period, relative to general political theories; the great controversy about neutral rights is at present suspended, and the public seem contented to wait the issue of those discussions that are carrying on in private, between the ministers of Britain and America.

This period has produced some productions, valuable by throwing light on the internal situation of the United States. Among these may be reckoned

A Correct Table of the Real and Imaginary Monies of the Whole Commercial World, with the intrinsic value of the coin of each country, reduced to federal money.

An Account of the Massachusetts Society for promoting Christian Knowledge.

An Account of the Massachusetts State-prison: containing a plan and description of the edifice; the regulations, &c., with a view of the present state of the institution.

A Catalogue of Plants contained in the Botanic Garden at Elgin, near New York, established in 1801, by Dr. David Hosack.

A Letter to the Inhabitants of the State and City of New-York, on the Commerce of the Western Waters.

Strictures on the Establishment of Colleges in the United States, and especially of St. Mary's, in the precincts of Baltimore.

Transactions of the Society of Duchess County for the Promotion of Agriculture, with select Essays on Rural Economy, &c.

A Statement of Facts, relative to the late Proceedings in Harvard College, Cambridge; published by the students.

The Picture of New York.

Dr. Mease's Geographical Account of the United States, comprehending a short description of their animal, vegetable, and mineral productions, antiquities, and curiosities.

A Letter giving an Account of the Country on the South Shore of Lake Erie, including climate, soil, trade, and productions, by Dr. James Tongue.

This period has been rendered memorable, by the additions it has made to the knowledge of the interior regions of North America. The late treaties with France and Spain, by extending the empire of the United States beyond the Missisippi, made it incumbent on an enlightened government to explore these regions, and, accordingly, several expeditions, amply fitted and provided at the public expence, were sent towards the west. One of these, under the conduct of captains Lewis and Clarke, succeeded in penetrating to the Pacific Ocean; and these gentlemen are now preparing an account of their adventures and discoveries for the public. Meanwhile, we are already in possession of curious and instructive details respecting the Missisippi, by lieutenant Pike, and of the Red River, by Messrs. Dunbar and Hunter; and when these are completed by the publication of Lewis and Clarke's journey, we shall have a monument of national liberality and public spirit, in the highest degree honourable to the present age. No national undertakings, equally arduous or equally important in their consequences, can be mentioned since the three voyages of captain Cook.

This period has witnessed the completion of two literary works, of far greater extent and importance than any hitherto mentioned, and such as have a merit and utility solid, lasting, and increasing, rather than diminishing with time. Their reputation will extend beyond the limits of our own country, and the whole learned world will recognise their value.

The first of these is Dr. Abel Holmes' American Annals, or a Chronological History of America, from its Discovery in 1492, to 1806. This author makes no pretensions to historical sagacity or eloquence. The value of his work arises from the fidelity and diligence displayed in it, and consists in its being an extensive and minute collection of facts in American history, chronologically arranged.

The second work is much superior to that just mentioned. It is Marshall's Life of Washington. The character and actions of Washington are such as occur but rarely in human annals. We recollect many that have been instrumental in the foundation of a great state, but no one who has been instrumental to so large an extent, and on principles so disinterested and magnanimous as Washington, to the creation and prosperity of a nation so civilized and powerful as the Anglo-Americans. This life, therefore, is the most magnificent theme, which the historian could select, and perhaps no historian possessed so fully as the present one the materials of a copious and authentic narrative. We are not inclined to say that the execution of the present work is on a level with the excellence and greatness of the theme, but the most impartial reader must admit, considering merely the nature of the materials, that it is a most valuable accession to literature.

Having thus taken a brief survey of original productions, we might now proceed to say something of the works imported from Europe,

and republished in America. The general character of these republications certainly throw some light upon the state of knowledge and manners among us, because those works only are republished for which the public curiosity is likely to create a considerable demand; but the truth is that we shall always find the public curiosity, in America, directed to the same literary objects as that of Great Britain. All works that have gained popularity in England, whether deservedly or not, are sure to be greedily received by us. So strong, indeed, is this spirit of imitation, that books are republished in America and have an extensive sale, whose subjects are remote from all our studies, and unintelligible to almost all our readers. Examples of this occur in the republication of the works of Roscoe, Horne Tooke's grammatical productions, and of several pamphlets strictly relative to the local concerns of Great Britain. We have, during this period, reprinted even the Trial of Richard Patch for the murder of Blight, and parts of the controversy about the conduct of the Prince of Wales.

Our republications, in general, however, are confined to professional books, and to the fashionable poetry and novels of the day. Among other works, the chief demand, especially in the eastern states, is for the writings of Junius and Edmund Burke. Of these, new editions are continually issuing from the press. Lindley Murray's school books have an unbounded circulation here as in England, and Shakspeare has passed through several editions among us. The standard English historians, Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon, are occasionally republished, and widely circulated. Yet we may venture to pronounce that any original work, from an American pen, however well written, on any branch of European biography or history, upwards of fifty years old, would find nobody to publish it at their own risque.

In investigating the state of book-making, in any country, and the causes that encourage or depress it, we are apt in general to refine too much, and to seek the causes of appearances, rather in the constitutional genius of the people, than in the common and obvious circumstances on which the fruits of literary genius and industry, like all other commodities, depend for their abundance and scarcity. Authors will, in fact, be always found, and books be written, where there is a pecuniary recompence for authors, and a ready sale for books, but where any circumstance denies them this reward, or reduces the sale of books, there will necessarily be few authors.

A judicious traveller observes, that in Italy, before the French revolution, very few original books were published, because the country was divided into numerous small states, and the right of exclusively publishing was limited to each small state. Hence, if any work chanced to be popular, all the profits of the author or printer were drawn from the sale in his own little district, his work being immediately republished by the *trade* in the neighbouring states. Hence, as most books are printed only or chiefly with a view to pecuniary profit, and the proprietor must at least be reimbursed the ordinary expences of the publication, and as few works can be published without loss in Italy, few are they which are published.

In America, a considerable impediment to authorship is removed by the security of literary property granted by the federal government, but there are other obstacles of more importance, arising from the connection which subsists between Great Britain and America. An American bookseller has always a plentiful supply of books from the old continent. In framing his orders, he is at liberty to consider what books are likely to be most saleable, and in this he is guided by his own experience, with regard to old books, and by the tide of present popularity in England with regard to new ones. In this he proceeds on tolerably sure grounds, and leaves nothing to hazard or contingency.

The high price of books in England, arising from the taxes upon paper, and the increase of that price, arising from the impost on the importation in America, render it more eligible in many cases, to republish, rather than to import the English book. In these two ways the capital and credit of the bookseller is fully and advantageously employed.

When the American student has completed a laborious work, he carries it to the bookseller, and offers it for sale. He puts a price upon it somewhat equivalent to the time employed in writing it, but the offer is very properly and prudently rejected by the bookseller, for, says he, here have I a choice of books from England, the popularity and sale of which is fixed and certain, and which will cost me nothing but the mere expences of publication; whereas, from you I must purchase the privilege of printing what I may, after all, be unable to dispose of, and which therefore may saddle me with the double loss of the original price and the subsequent expences. If the disappointed author abates in his demand, and even finally is willing to make a present of his work to the publisher, the uncertainty of the sale still remains, and renders the project a hazardous and precarious one. His reluctance increases in proportion as it is extensive and voluminous. This will probably be found to be the true cause why original works are so rare in America. There are very few in any country who write books without any prospect of pecuniary recompense, or, when their books are written, can afford to publish them at their own expence. The ingenious, therefore, are obliged to spend their time in desultory reading, or to turn their attention to the walks of plodding but lucrative business.

This state of things may appear to some like a heavy disadvantage, and as a matter of great regret; and yet, if the appetite for useful and valuable books be amply supplied at present, of what consequence is it whether the supply come from home or from abroad? The capital of booksellers is at present fully employed in importing and publishing. If more of their manufacture were of domestic materials, an equivalent diminution must take place in the materials of foreign growth, and upon the whole we are more likely to be well supplied as things are at present. At any rate, the evil, if it be one, seems to be irremediable. As long as England, France, and Germany continue to produce books, and America is at liberty to chuse among them what she will import, and what she will republish, it will always be most

prudent to pursue a great and certain, in preference to a small and precarious gain. Thus, we see at present an American bookseller undertake to republish a work in twenty volumes quarto, and demanding a capital of an hundred thousand dollars, who will refuse to give fifty dollars for a pamphlet written by his neighbour, or even to publish at his own expence, from the risque of loss which attends it; and this caution it is impossible for an impartial man to censure, though he may applaud the generosity, which of its own accord will put something to hazard, or voluntarily abridge its own gains for the sake of cherishing or relieving genius in despair, or learning in beggary.

CHRONICLE

OF

MEMORABLE OCCURRENCES.

1806—7.

CHRONICLE.

IT is proposed, in a London paper, as an object highly important in a commercial view, to make a small establishment on the now almost depopulated island of Otaheite; and to render it useful in the navigation to and from Botany Bay, as a place where ships may procure abundant supplies of pork and vegetables. The king of Owhyhee is making himself master of the other Sandwich Islands; is improving them to the greatest prosperity of agriculture and population; is ambitious of making them seats of manufactures and commerce, and even proposes to open a trade to Nootka Sound and to Bengal.

The colony of Botany Bay is advancing gradually into a great mart for both British and East India produce. It is expected that the colonists of that settlement may be shortly able to furnish from hides and wool, hemp and flax, their share in the southern whale-fishery, and from the part they may take in the fur-trade between India and the north-west coast of America, exports sufficient to repay for all the imports which the progress of the colony demands.

There were imported into the port of London, last week, from Canada, the following skins, viz, 106,000 beavers, 125,000 racoons, 54,000 marten, 12,000 otter, 16,000 wolf, 5300 cat, 1000 bear, 15,000 minx, 10,000 fox, 2300 wolvrine, 15,500 musquash, 216,000 deer, 100 elk, and 600 pounds weight of castor.

The trade for furs to the north-west coast of America is entirely, or almost entirely, in the hands of the citizens of the United States. India and China are the places of sale for the furs, and it proves a lucrative branch of commerce. It is thought this trade might be shared by the British subjects. Our Canada fur-trade is profitable, as also that of the Hudson's Bay Company.

In the Island of Cuba there is neither grown wheat, olives, or vines. Every article of clothing is brought from Europe, there not being a single manufacture of any kind in it. In 1792, there were exported to Spain 30,000 cwt. of tobacco, besides that consumed in the country and in America. The export of wax that year amounted to 50,000 cwt.: bees have only been introduced into Cuba since the year 1764. After the peace of Versailles, when Florida was ceded to the English, some families came over from St. Augustine, and brought some hives with them, and in a short time they increased so much, that the sugar plantations became endangered.

There were 50 sail of American ships in China last year, who took from thence to America, from eight to ten thousand tons of tea, a great part of which finds its way to Europe. Canton is full of American adventurers, many of whom retire with large fortunes in a few years;

there are at least a dozen who have been resident for a year or two, and have already realized a considerable sum.

There are 600 sugar-mills in the island of Cuba; from these, including what is consumed in the country, more than 500,000 cwt. of sugar was exported to Europe. In this island there is not one navigable river, only small rivulets and streams; there are 148 lakes, which contain fish; there is abundance of turtle on the coast.

Captain William Bradshaw, of Salem, who was in a vessel lately cast away in the Bahamas, has returned home, and gives the following account of his sufferings, and those of his unfortunate companions. He sailed from Cape François on the 28th of June last, in the schooner Vigilant, captain Ross, bound to Philadelphia, loaded with coffee; himself and Mr. Nixon, of Philadelphia, were passengers; Mr. Isaac Rogers, of Philadelphia, supercargo; and a white man and a black man, seamen. On the night of the 29th, the vessel struck on the Caicos Bank, and very soon filled with water. In this situation they spent the night in throwing out the coffee, and getting their most valuable things upon deck; but in the morning, contrary to their expectations, they found themselves out of sight of land, and the vessel was partly under water, when they put out the boat, which was very small and ill provided; and asked Mr. Rogers if he would go in the boat, but he said he would stay by the vessel, when captain Ross said that if Mr. Rogers would not go, he would tarry with him. The boat was supposed not able to carry all six; consequently, Bradshaw, Nixon, and the white seaman, with no other provision than two bottles of wine, put off in hopes of finding the Caicos Island, and obtaining relief; but after rowing all day and night, they could make no discovery. In the morning the wind breezed, and it became necessary to put the boat before the sea, and they passed to leeward of the vessel without seeing her. The wind still breezing, the boat required constant bailing; when just at night they discovered a small island, a sand key of the Caicos Bank, where they landed and staid about twenty days, without fresh water or fire, or any means of subsistence, excepting birds, which they killed, and used chiefly the blood and livers, and a few prickly pears, which they soon consumed. They made a small booth of bushes, which they cut with pen-knives, and thought they found refreshment by often bathing in the sea. They tried various ways to obtain fire, and hoped to succeed by means of the crystal of a watch, but failed. In the mean time they made several excursions in the boat, in order to find the Great Caicos, but in vain. At length they were driven to the necessity of committing themselves to the sea, without a drop of water, or any provisions but raw birds.

In this situation they were carried before the wind and sea, for four days. All the exertion they attempted was merely to baile, which required constantly one hand, and to hold out an oar to steer the boat, and even this they were too weak to continue, when they took means, by tying a ballast-stone to an oar, and sinking it, fastened by the painter to the stern, to bring the boat to the wind, that she might not fill, whilst they rested and slept; but in this way the painter was worn off, and they were left with but one oar. In such a forlorn condition they discovered land under their lee; but when they came near, they found the shore was a steep ledge, beat by a tremendous surf. Yet such was their necessity to get on shore, that they ventured up to the ledge, within reach of their oar; when the seaman, being a good swimmer, jumped out and reached the rock, but, attempting to climb up, it was so steep that he fell back in the surf, and was supposed to be lost. Seeing this, the other two made all exertion to save themselves; one by crouding the boat from the rocks

with the oar, and the other by bailing, for she was fast filling, whilst the lee current carried them to a place where the shore was low, but was still a rock. Here they set the boat in; but such was the violence of the surf, that she at once stove to pieces. Mr. Bradshaw held the oar and steered the boat, whilst Mr. Nixon stood forward. He therefore jumped out without injury; but Mr. Bradshaw was thrown by the shock and force of the sea with violence against the rocks, and received a stunning wound in his head, and other deep bruises; but striking at the top of the surf, by the assistance of Mr. Nixon, he recovered ground before the sea returned. This proved to be Ackland's Island. In this situation, sometime past the middle of the day, Mr. Bradshaw was left lying on the sand, and Mr. Nixon went to search for inhabitants, but made no discovery that day. At night he lay down among the bushes, and in the morning renewed his search, and in the latter part of the day discovered a house, which was on a plantation belonging to James Moss, Esq., who lives at Crooked Island, near to Ackland's. Mr. Moss happened to be there, and immediately sent his servants to look for captain Bradshaw; but he was not found that day: he had crept into the bushes. The search was renewed the next day, and he was found in a condition in which he could not have survived but a few hours. Mr. Moss was very attentive and prudent in administering to them nourishment. Four days after they landed, the man who was left at the cliffs came to the same house. He had again recovered the rock and climbed up, and had been wandering about till that time. The writing-desks of captain Bradshaw and Mr. Rogers had both washed ashore on this island, and had been picked up some time before the man arrived, and also several pieces of the vessel, by which they knew she had gone to pieces. As soon as they were able to be moved, Mr. Moss sent his boat and brought them to Crooked Island, where they stayed several weeks; at which place a vessel touched, bound for a load of salt, and the seaman went on board, by which, doubtless, the account was brought, which sometime since was printed at New London. From Crooked Island, Bradshaw and Nixon went in a sloop belonging to Mr. Moss, of New Providence; but their troubles had not ended: the same night they arrived, before they had gone on shore, there came on a gale, and the sloop parted her cables and went on shore. Her cargo, which was salt, was partly lost, but the vessel was got off. About a week after, Mr. Nixon sailed in a vessel bound to Charleston, and Mr. Bradshaw went on board the schooner Eagle, captain Adams, belonging to Baltimore, when another gale took place, harder than the first, when the Eagle drifted ashore, and filled with water. Captain Bradshaw then went on board the same sloop he went down in, which returned to Crooked Island, and was sent to New York for provisions, as the people of those islands were in a state of distress, by reason of the hurricanes. Captain Ross's account has been given to the public.

Captain Bradshaw mentions the kind assistance afforded them by the Marine Society at Crooked Island; and particularly the many great kindnesses shown them by Mr. Moss.

New Orleans, Sept. 18.—On Wednesday morning last, about one or two o'clock, this city was visited by a hurricane, which continued till late in the morning. The loss sustained by the commercial part of our fellow-citizens is considerable. There were but few vessels in port which did not receive much injury; and the small craft either driven out of sight or sunk. In the city, the fences, some brick walls, and trees, were blown down. Some houses were unroofed, and one or two that were only part built, were blown level with the earth. We have not yet heard what has been the fate of the sugar plantations, &c., but fear they have been much damaged.

Judge Prevost has lost all his cane, and the sugar-works are level with the ground, except his mill. The effects of it are felt upwards of eighty miles up the coast.

Summary of the French budget for 1806.

Total receipts, 894,240,359 francs, or $ 170,000,000

Expenditures.	
Public debt, interest, &c.	18,000,000
Civil list, Bonaparte and the princes	6,000,000
Funds in reserve, at his disposal	6,000,000
War department	74,000,000
Marine do.	30,000,000
Charges in negociations	3,000,000
Courts of justice, foreign and domestic relations, pensions, &c.	33,000,000
Dollars,	170,000,000

Wilmington, N. C., Sept. 23.—The wreck of the schooner Carpenter, of Philadelphia, drifted ashore at Masonborough Beach on Tuesday last, the main and quarter decks partly blown up, and considerable coffee in the hold. She was taken possession of by Joseph Robinson, Edward Robinson, and John Floyd, who, after taking from the cabin a silver watch, two kegs of paint, and a few shillings in money, burnt the wreck and took the iron. On the above information being given to the inhabitants of Wilmington, they were pursued, and Joseph Robinson, John Floyd, John Hewlett, Sampson Bruington, and John Conner were apprehended and examined by the justice of the peace for the county of New Hanover. From evidence introduced on the examination, Joseph Robinson and John Floyd were committed for trial at the ensuing county court.

Several letters, very much defaced and torn, directed to New York and Philadelphia, and some of them dated at Jacquemel, in July last, were found in possession of Joseph Robinson.

Montreal, Sept. 20, 1806.—Three persons have been taken in the suburbs of this town, in the act of throwing off a considerable number of bank notes, chiefly, I am told, of the Merchants' Bank of New York, and some other banks of the United States. They say that they are extremely well executed. I am told that they have found, in the house where these persons were apprehended, near fifteen thousand pounds in counterfeit bills. It is reported that another set is in the country, acting in the same manner.

Petersburg, Virg., Oct. 3.—For the last ten or twelve days, we have had more rain in this neighbourhood than has fallen for many months, and the damage done to the low ground crops, bridges, mills, &c. has been very considerable: but it does not appear that the late mischief has extended far in the upper country, as the water in the Appamattox has not swelled but very little. The mails were delayed one or two days, and that from Norfolk, due on Wednesday night, has not arrived, probably owing to the loss of bridges, in some of the lower counties.

It is not possible to calculate the actual damage sustained, but it must be very great. The loss to some of the inhabitants of Petersburg alone, is computed at 8 or 10,000 dollars. The little bridge on Old-street is entirely washed away, and the street much injured. The Blandford causeway is also greatly injured, and the arch destroyed.

It was a grand though melancholy scene to behold the water rushing through the houses on Old-street, seeking a passage to the river. The actual body of water that was discharged by this means, was at least two feet in depth, making a fair breach, through the counting-rooms and stores, into the street.

St. Thomas, Oct. 4.—The quick re-establishment of the town of St. Thomas had scarcely made the inhabitants forget the disastrous night of the 22d of November, 1804, when

a fresh fire has renewed that painful scene, and consumed a rich quarter of the town.

A fire broke out, about half past seven in the evening of the 1st instant, in a store situated in the market-place which is about the centre of this town. Notwithstanding the quick succour, which the civil authorities brought in conjunction with the inhabitants, it was impossible to confine the flames; they extended in such quickness to a pretty large circumference, that scarcely any thing was saved. The houses of Messrs. Lange and Suffren, constructed with bricks and not yet covered, put a stop to the flames in the eastern quarter; and those of Messrs. Murphy and Peneke, the latter being a brick house and fire-proof, happily succeeded in the western quarter. A light breeze springing up about 11 o'clock, caused the flames to break out in the northern quarter and spread themselves to a considerable extent.

The ravages did not stop in this quarter, but for some vacant lots and the demolition of some buildings, which being inconsiderable, were soon pulled down. It is supposed that more than a fourth part of the town has been consumed. The two extremities are fortunately saved; but the centre, which was newly and handsomely built, now discovers but the standing walls, and a space covered with the ashes of merchandize, furniture, and precious effects, to a very considerable amount.

The fire lasted till about ten minutes past twelve, and was perceived at St. Croix.

The greatest order reigned during this unfortunate night. The rest of the town owes not less its safety to the exertions of the civil authorities, and the inhabitants, than to the favourable circumstances by which they were seconded.

Chatham, Oct. 7.—An accident of a most melancholy and fatal nature happened on the morning of Thursday last, in the ravelin on the left of Chatham lines: two very large brick arches, which were built for the purpose of forming a magazine, were finished on last Saturday week. On Wednesday, the carpenters were directed to ease down the centring, over which the arches were built, in order that the brick work might come to its bearings (an operation which in large buildings is performed at least twice, but most generally three times, before the frame work is entirely taken away): this was accordingly done; and on Thursday morning, before the commanding engineer was on the spot, the workmen, in the presence of two or three foremen of the bricklayers and carpenters, proceeded under the arch, without having taken the precaution to see whether the brick work had followed the frame, and instead of easing down, began to remove the uprights which supported the centring; the consequence of which was, that the whole mass of brick work over their heads fell in with a dreadful crash, and out of ten persons, six civil and four military carpenters who were employed in this unhappy business, eight were crushed to death, and buried in the ruins, and the other two were with much difficulty saved, being much bruised and lacerated. The most prompt measures were taken to endeavour to extricate the bodies of the unfortunate sufferers, but while the workmen were clearing away the rubbish ofr that purpose, an alarm was given, that the remaining arch was falling, and that they were in danger; before they could proceed with their work it was necessary that the building should be secured; during this state of awful suspense, one of the poor fellows, since saved, and who was shattered and buried in the ruins as high as his chest, was in momentary expectation of being again overwhelmed, kept crying out that, as an act of mercy, some of the bye-standers would put an end to his misery and existence. At the extreme hazard of their lives, however, some fearless and determined men, went to his assistance, and extricated him from the dreadful situa-

tion. As soon as the remaining arch was secured, the workmen proceeded in their search, and continued working till dark, by which time they found five of the bodies, and at an early hour the next morning, the remaining three were dug out. Their bodies were conveyed to the barracks hospital, and an inquest was held before J. Simmons, Esq., one of the coroners of the county, when the jury, after a most dispassionate and unprejudiced enquiry into every circumstance, gave in a verdict of accidental death.

The piers on which the arch was built, are standing, and are perfectly sound, and is supposed that the remaining arch will stand secure.

Two of the unfortunate people have left widows and large families, one seven, the other five children, who are reduced to the utmost distress by this accident.

Philadelphia, Oct. 8.—Last night a very heavy gale came on at N. E., attended with rain, and blew with great violence; this morning it came round to S. E., and from this to W., at which point it is still blowing with considerable violence. We have not understood that any material damage has been sustained, yet there is reason to apprehend that there has been some, as well from the wind as from the tide, which was uncommonly high.

As some things please by their very absurdity, we are tempted to copy the following poetical advertisement of a riding-master in Philadelphia:

Now Swann's at work to which the world,
And endless truths to you has told,
How to acquire that perfect seat
By methods certain and complete,
Which is not tricks as heretofore
With which they did our cities bore,
Say Rickets, Lailson, and some more.
By monkey capers high in air
All for to make the vulgar stare,
And this was horsemanship, said they,
But we said no, 'tis t'other way;
Nearly as well they might it call,
Rope-dancing, or an opera ball;
Of horsemanship had nought to do,
As sure as one and one makes two;
Witness the capers of the filley,
With looks as sweet as any lilly:
Her like was never seen before
To view, 'tis only to adore;
Then let us see it whilst we can,
Which will be for the good of
SWANN.

Charleston, Oct. 9.—The weather for the last two days, has been very tempestuous, the wind blowing with great violence from north-east to east-south-east, accompanied with heavy rains. The tide this morning rose to an unusual height, and has torn to pieces the remnant of East Bay-street and the front of South Bay. Many of the wharves were completely under water, and the property in the cellars contiguous thereto damaged. The shipping in the harbour have sustained but trifling injury.

The exposed situation of the inhabitants in the vicinity of New East Bay-street, and South Bay, demands prompt attention and relief from the city council. Unless measures are speedily taken to guard against the encroachments of the sea, apprehensions may be seriously entertained for the safety of property in that part of the city; and the inhabitants will be compelled to leave their houses, whenever the change of the moon, or a strong easterly wind, shall indicate a high tide.

New Orleans, Oct. 9.—On Saturday morning last, the citizens of New Orleans were alarmed by the cry of fire. A house, in which there was a baker's shop, at the corner of Royal and Main-streets, had taken fire, as we are informed, by a negro falling asleep on some hay, with a lighted segar in his mouth. The walls of the house being brick (we believe), the adjoining houses covered with tiles, and the morning being very still, are perhaps the only circumstances which prevented a great part of the city from being laid in ruins. The exertions of a *few* at the above fire, deserves every man's thanks.

But the confusion that prevailed (it being almost impossible to form a line of men to hand the buckets, and, when formed, many deserted it with impunity), the little exertions which many persons used on that occasion, cannot have escaped the notice of the most careless observer, and must be matter of regret to every person of reflection.

Burlington, Oct. 11, 1806.—A very extraordinary circumstance lately occurred in this town. One Elisha Peck, an enthusiastic preacher, has declared that he has had an extraordinary vision, and that he should certainly die last Tuesday night, between the hours of 9 and 12 o'clock. He gave a public invitation to all around, to attend at his house on Tuesday, the last day of his life, as he said, and hear him tell his experience from his childhood to that time, and then he would preach to them his farewell sermon. Vast numbers attended on the occasion, more out of curiosity, I believe, than from a belief that his prediction would be fulfilled. However, he began his discourse early in the forenoon, to a vast audience collected on the occasion, talked about 6 hours, and declared it was his firm belief that he should be a dead man by 12 o'clock that night. He fixed the day for his funeral, and invited the people to attend it on the Friday following, for the purpose of burying him, and told who was to preach his funeral sermon, and the place where his grave was to be dug by a man he had agreed with. Towards the close of his discourse, he said he felt as if he had done his work, and had no more to say, and desired a minister present to make a concluding prayer, which he did in a very solemn manner. Peck then rose, and sung a sort of farewell hymn, and immediately dismounted the waggon on which he stood, and went to his house. Dr. Ross, and a number of others, staid till after midnight: sometime in the evening he stripped and went to bed, and gave orders to those present to let him die in peace and not disturb him. After the time was expired, he arose and sung very merrily, and said his reprieve was effected by the prayers of his faithful brethren, some of which had repaired to the groves for the purpose of making intercession for his life.

Norfolk, Oct. 13.—On Wednesday night, a most diabolical attempt was made to set fire to the house of Mr. Wright Southgate, on Main-street. It appears that the perpetrator of this horrid act had been at some trouble to effect the nefarious design. A coal of fire was wrapped in a piece of cotton, and over that a piece of newspaper, which had been dipped in oil: these were put into a piece of carpeting, and put under the street door. Another coal had been put into a deal box, which was in a cellar in the front of the house. A pane of glass being broken in the cellar window, prevented any noise. The box is much burned, and the door a little. Providentially, the fire went out; but the horror which such an attempt excites will, it is hoped, induce an active and persevering endeavour to discover the perpetrators.

New York, Oct. 13.—Several incendiary attempts have lately been made to set fire to this city. On Friday night, the cellar of Mr. Battin's tavern, corner of John-street, was discovered to be in a blaze; and it was found out that fire had been thrown into the cellar window, which communicated to an empty hogshead: and yesterday morning, a similar attempt was made to set fire to the paint-shop of Mr. Sitcher, in William-street. Both attempts, however, proved abortive, by their timely discovery. It requires all the vigilance of the police to prevent our being burnt up in our beds!

A stable at Brooklyn was on Saturday night destroyed by fire.

Baltimore, Oct. 15.—A person who came to this city last week from Norfolk, and who said his name was Jordan, has lately passed a counterfeit note of the Bank of Baltimore,

for fifty dollars. It appears he arrived lately at Norfolk, in the ship Sally, from London, and has now gone into the back country, intending, very probably, to pass more of these notes. The signatures of the president and cashier are well executed. The ink used in the printing is not so black as the genuine notes, and the paper is thin and oily. It being highly probable these notes were fabricated in England, there is no knowing how many different denominations may be in his posession. The public are cautioned to be on their guard, and to use every diligence in having the vender apprehended."

Savannah, Georgia, Oct. 16, 1806.—This city has been under arms for two nights past, expecting an insurrection from the blacks. It appears that several meetings had taken place about four miles from town, where they had agreed to attack the whites; in the city they had appointed generals and other officers. According to their plans, they were to make three separate landings; one at Wayne's wharf, one at the Coffee House Wharf, and one at the fort. They were then to set fire to the town and massacre the whites. But a difference existed between two of their leaders, and one of them divulged the secret early the evening before yesterday, in consequence of which the different companies of volunteers were stationed under the Bluff, and the militia at Spring Hill, where twelve of the head men of the insurgents were taken, and will be tried in a few days. Having been so fortunate as to take the head men, we have now I think little to fear, as the rest appear to be quiet. The negroes are to the whites as eight to one!

New York, Oct. 20.—A man was apprehended in this city on Saturday, for passing counterfeit bank notes, to the amount of 500 dollars. He had purchased goods at the store of Mr. John King, in Broadway; and, to meet the expence of this purchase, had deposited the bills in one of the banks, where the fraud was detected. The bills, we understand, were intended to represent the notes of the Baltimore Branch Bank, and were ingeniously executed.

Norfolk, Nov. 1.—On Tuesday morning a duel took place near Gosport, between Messrs. Ottley and Connell, first and second lieuts. of his Brittannic majesty's ship Chichester, now repairing at said place; when the former was shot through the head at the first fire, and expired on the spot. Mr. Connell and the seconds have decamped.

About 8 o'clock on Monday evening, this borough was alarmed by the cry of fire, which took place in a warehouse on Maxwell's wharf, occasioned by a quantity of lime being stored in it. Owing to the great and active exertions of some sailors and of the inhabitants, it was got under without any material damage.

Edenton, N. C., Nov. 5.—Cast away on the beach at Cape Hatteras, on the 25th ult., the brig John and James, of Charleston, —— Garman master; sailed from Boston on Tuesday, October 21st, bound to Charleston; cargo, rum, chocolate, butter, &c., &c.; passengers, Mr. and Mrs. Claude, Mess. Bigsby, Lothrop, Waldoe, Manson, and O. Sullivan. Upon leaving the Roads of Nantasket, light wind from N. N. W., but gradually increased until we reached the Vineyard, when it came on fresh from N. N. E., and so continued. On Thursday took the sun (weather remarkably pleasant), and found ourselves in the latitude of New York; towards evening became a little hazy; and on Friday too cloudy to get an observation; weather, notwithstanding, tolerably pleasant, with a moderate sea; at 12 o'clock on Friday night the moon appeared, and every prospect, as was supposed, of fair weather; but to our astonishment and horror, on Saturday morning, at about half past 5 o'clock, we were soused from our birth by a violent sea pouring through our sky-lights. Among the passengers a scene of confusion was the natural result; but our fears

were partially hushed by the mate's (whose watch it was) informing us, upon being questioned by the captain, that we had only shipped a sea. All was now quiet; but, alas! only for a moment, for we instantly felt too sensibly, that our first fears were right, and that we were on some shore or shoal. The first report from the seamen was, that we were on the shoals of Cape Hatteras; but to our joy, if such a sensation could enter the bosom of man at such a distressing period, we found ourselves within a few yards of the beach. Thus were we by the ever watchful care of an Almighty God, snatched from a watery grave, and once more safe landed. Several of the inhabitants of the island were upon the shore; their intentions appeared friendly, and we cherished the hope, that from any direct route to our destined port, we should, by their assistance, be enabled to pursue our journey. The first day we waited patiently, under assurance from Mr. Baum, that by the second morning our baggage should be on board a small vessel we had chartered to carry us to Edenton; from whence we understood we could procure an immediate conveyance, by land or water, to Charleston. The next day passed as the preceding. We then began to suspect (what we afterwards found to be the fact), that this Baum's intention was to keep us with him while there was a probability of gaining a cent. We advised with each other, and came to a determination that if they would give us no assistance, we would assist each other (though fatigued almost to death with distresses we had undergone), and drop in the attempt, or take our goods and baggage from the beach to the vessel we had hired. When this man of humanity, Baum, found we were resolute, he *very good naturedly* offered us the service of his negroes, but did not forget to make an exorbitant charge, as will appear from the following statement, for he was particularly uniform in one respect, which was his charges. Our fare consisted of nothing but stewed pork and sweet potatoes (bread we provided principally ourselves), for which he charged each person one dollar per day.

Before we close our detail of this unfortunate occurrence, we deem it but justice to the captain to declare, that he gave the most marked attention to his ship-wrecked passengers; and that from the moment our situation was discovered he acted honestly the part of a tar. From the little conversation we have had with him since our landing, it appears he attributes the accident to the incorrectness of his compass, or the uncommon force of the current.

A rich vein of lead ore has been discovered in Virginia.

Nov. 11.—The stern of the ship Concord of Salem has been seen at sea. The Concord was cast away near Little Egg Harbour, on the Jersey shore, the 13th ult., and we understand a part of the gin, composing her cargo, has since drifted on shore, and has been saved. The ship and the remainder of the cargo have been totally lost.

Hartford, Nov. 12.—The prisoners in Newgate, on Saturday se'nnight, attempted to rise on the guard, and to make their escape; they, however, did not succeed. In the affray, one of the prisoners, a negro, was shot through the head, and expired instantly.

By a report made to the legislature of Vermont, of the state of the treasury, it appears, that the payments for the last year amount to 22,762 dollars 33 cents. The receipts to 28,317 dollars 14 cents, and there is now in the treasury 21,031 dollars 30 cents.

New York, Nov. 18.—Yesterday we mentioned the fire at Brooklyn, which commenced at that place about 9 o'clock on Sunday evening; but it was too late for any particulars. The following account we have from Mr. Hicks, innkeeper at that place.

The fire originated in the stable of captain Suydam, which, with the following stables and houses, were

laid in ashes. The stable belonging to widow Carpenter, the stable of Mr. George Hicks, a small stable of Mr. Benjamin Cornell, a large two story dwelling-house and store of Mr. John Van Nostrandt, on which there was an insurance of one thousand pounds, and the dwelling-house of Mr. William Foster. Here the terrific element ceased; but there were several other buildings considerably injured by the fire, and a barn of Mr. Striker's partly pulled down to prevent the further progress of destruction. One horse was burnt in Mr. Suydam's stable.

Here will arise the natural question, "How did this fire originate?" The answer is interesting and lamentable. It appears that two boys aged about 14 (one of them named Martin, an apprentice to Mr. Burk, hair-dresser, and the other named William Cornell), were disposed to have some *fun*, as they termed it, and they knew of nothing at that time that suited their wickedness so well as to set fire to the town of Brooklyn; but they little dreamt a detector was so near at hand. These boys bought a candle, lighted it, and proceeded through the streets to put into execution their hellish design. The one who was carrying the candle was known and observed by John Garrison, Esq., one of the justices of the peace. At that moment the candle fell out of his hand, and was extinguished. Mr. Garrison, however, did not then suspect their intentions. They lighted the candle a second and third time before they reached Mr. Suydam's barn; when they pulled off one of the weather-boards, and set fire to the hay. The next morning Mr. Garrison accused Martin, who confessed the facts above stated; when both of the boys were immediately committed to prison.

Norfolk, Nov. 26.—On Friday night last, about 9 o'clock, a dispute took place in a gambling-house, in Little Water-street, between the keepers of the faro-bank (two brothers, named Davis) and an itinerant vagabond, who goes by the name of Colminer, an Italian, well-known in and about Richmond as a *grinder of music*, and who kept a dye-table in the race-field during the late races near this place. During the scuffle, the Italian made use of his national weapon (a dagger) with so much expertness, that he cleared his way, and made his escape, having stabbed both the Davisses, a man of the name of Watson, and the oldest Hubbard, shoemakers and inhabitants of this borough. One of the Davisses died early the next morning, and Watson on Sunday. The other Davis, we learn, cannot survive. Hubbard is out of danger. The assassin has not been heard of since, nor do we learn of any exertions making to have him apprehended. He is a low, well-set fellow, very dark complexion, and speaks broken English.

Lancaster, Penn.—On the 26th November, a carter of Adams county, having five horses to his waggon, loaded with flour, attempted to cross Conewago Creek, which had been raised by a heavy rain: his horses and waggon were swept away by the current, the horses drowned, and with difficulty the driver escaped.

On the 14th December, when Mr. John Mettler, with two other persons, was going in a boat laden with bricks and boards from Rotterdam, on the Oneida Lake, to his place on that lake, the boat sunk, and he unfortunately was drowned. The two other persons with him saved their lives by the assistance of boards and swimming. Mr. Mettler was a native of the canton of Zurich, in Switzerland. He came to this country last year, with the intention to settle in it; for which purpose he chose a situation on the Oneida Lake, and to which he invited his friends from his deluded native country as their future abode, free from oppression. He was a man of good understanding, and of strict honour and integrity; in what he undertook he was indefatigable. His early and unfortunate death is much regretted by his friends and acquaintances in

this country, to which he would have been an acquisition of a good citizen.

Nov. 29.—Capt. Eldridge, of the ship Rebecca, arrived at Wilmington, N. C., in 21 days from Barbadoes; informs, that on the night of the 4th of October, and the following day, a tremendous and dangerous sea hove in from S. W., without a breath of wind. The schr. Packet, of Kennebeck, capt. Smith, was driven ashore, and the vessel and cargo totally lost, together with ten or twelve thousand dollars in specie, belonging to the unfortunate capt. Weeden of the schr. Nancy, of Newhaven, bound to Demerara, which on the 9th Sept., in lat. 45°, in a hurricane, lost her mainmast, foremast, and captain (who was washed overboard), and arrived at Barbadoes. On the 15th September, off Martinico, bound in, the schr. Attempt, Davis, from Salem, was taken by his Britannic majesty's schr. Morne Fortune, Brown, and carried to Barbadoes for adjudication, where she was tried and cargo condemned by the court of admirality, on account of there being found on board a cask of cordage belonging to one of the sailors, which was unknown to the captain or owners. Her cargo was worth seventeen thousand dollars. On the 30th Oct., the morning after leaving Barbadoes, capt. E. was boarded by the British frigate Seine, with gen. Miranda on board, and informed that, after an unsuccessful attack on the Main, Miranda had purchased a ship of 18 guns, which he sent to Trinidad, and came on board the Seine frigate bound to Barbadoes, to see the admiral. Nov. 6, lat. 21° 20′ N., long. 66° 15′ W. at day-light saw a disabled ship to windward bearing down for us; she proved to be a British frigate with her main top gallant mast and fore topmast carried away by the board, her rigging hanging promiscuously about her waist and dragging overboard, and all hands busily employed in clearing the wreck: being hove too on the opposite tack we drew some distance apart, expecting her boat on board; but were ordered by a signal to make sail; and, being then out of hail, pursued our voyage without information of the frigate's misfortunes.

Boston, Dec. 3.—*Supreme Judicial court.*—Yesterday, in the supreme court, the grand inquest for the county returned a bill of indictment against Thomas Oliver Selfridge, Esq. for man-slaughter, in shooting Charles Austin, on the 4th of August last. He was soon after arraigned, and pleaded not guilty to the charge. The court inquired when he would be ready for his trial; and named Friday and Tuesday next. Mr. Selfridge replied, he could not possibly say he could be ready so soon.—He had not yet consulted his counsel on the subject; and he had witnesses to collect, one of whom, he understood, was in New York, and another in the District of Maine. The court, after a consultation with the attorney-general, did not assign any particular day; but directed Mr. S. to be ready for trial as soon as possible. His counsel then moved, that he be admitted to bail, to attend from day to day until his trial. The attorney-general (Sullivan) was asked, if he had any objection to make to the motion. He replied, "That man-slaughter was a bailable offence; he could therefore have no objection." Mr. S. was then required to find bail in 2000 dollars penalty, to abide his trial. He has, we learn, found the bail, and will be restored to his liberty this day.

Baltimore, Dec. 8.—Yesterday, at about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, Frederick, the son of Dr. Wolfe, discharged a fowling-piece, the chief contents of which lodged in head of a boy named Greenfield, who instantly expired. Two other boys were wounded, one of them considerably. The origin or particulars of the affair we have been unable to learn, in consequence of the contradiction apparent in evidence of the case. An inquest was held immediately upon the body of the

deceased, and a verdict of "accidental death" given by the jury. We have no wish to add to the calamities of the unfortunate widow, who has thus been deprived of her only son, by stating our feelings on the dreadful affair. We have learned that the perpetrator of the deed is a shrewd, sensible lad, and that he has been bound over for his good behaviour.

An affray took place on the Point yesterday, in which a Spaniard attempted to stab an American sailor. Happily, no damage was sustained.

Augusta, Geo., Dec. 21.—We have had a most horrid murder in town, on the person of Mr. Whittanmore from New England, who came here a few weeks past, with a very large assortment of New England goods. He had sold to a considerable amount. He boarded at the house of Samuel Mayo, on the street leading to the ferry. On Friday night last, Mayo, and one Love, with Mayo's whole family, entered Mr. W.'s room, and made an effort to strangle him; but, finding he did not die soon enough, they dispatched him with their knives, sewed the body up in a sheet, and threw it into the river with weights to keep it down. Love has turned state's evidence, and revealed the whole circumstance. They are all in jail. The body is not yet found; but Love is to assist this morning in the search for it. Mr. W.'s trunk was broke open, and all his money taken out, excepting a few dollars.

An unfortunate accident happened at New Mill, N. J., on the evening of the 24th of December. A number of boys were engaged in firing a four pounder: at length to make a loud explosion, they put in a pound and a half of powder, filled the piece with earth, and drove a wooden plug in the mouth. On putting the match to it, the cannon burst, and one of the pieces struck a lad, who was standing at some distance, in the cheek, made a deep wound, and killed him instantly.

New York, Dec. 27, 1806.—A very serious riot took place in this city on Thursday evening. It originated, we understand, with a desperate association of unprincipled men, calling themselves *Highbinders*, who, under pretence of demolishing houses of ill fame, commit the most disorderly practices upon peaceable and unoffending citizens. A party of these banditti, amounting to about 50, assembled on Christmas Eve, in front of the Roman Catholic church in Barclay-street, with the expectation that certain ceremonies, usual in Catholic countries, but generally omitted here, would be performed. The highbinders insisted upon the church doors being opened, and that certain ceremonies should commence. A member of the corporation and of the church prevailed upon them to retire; but they returned a second time, abused the watchmen, and did not disperse until a very late hour.

A number of the lower class of Irishmen, residing principally in Augustus, Cross, and Barclay-streets, enraged at this lawless attack upon their religion, collected on the following evening (Thursday), and a serious riot ensued. The captain of the middle watch, with eighteen watchmen, hearing that some disturbance had broken out, immediately proceeded to Augustus-street; but were dispersed by a large body of Irishmen, who, at a certain signal, attacked them with bludgeons, and struck at every man who wore a cap. [The New York watchmen, on duty, wear a helmet-cap, guarded with sheet iron.]

Christopher Luswanger, one of the watchmen, chased an Irishman armed with a club, overtook and knocked him down: another Irishman immediately followed him and struck him a left hand blow with a sharp pointed weapon, which penetrated below the right pap, and, from the semblance of this wound, it appears to have been made by a stiletto. The man fell instantly, and expired without a struggle. The body was taken up immediately and carried to the Alms house. This

circumstance, as may reasonably be supposed, exasperated the citizens beyond description, and the Irishmen were hunted down in all directions.

About this period the mob had collected to very considerable numbers, and even dispersed to pull down the houses inhabited by the Irish. Happily, the mayor arrived, and, with some others of the magistrates and officers of the police, succeeded in stilling the passions of the multitude. A second set of persons, Irish as well as others, were carried to Bridewell, and the several watch-houses, and they yesterday underwent examinations. Six or eight only have been committed, the greater proportion being dismissed, as no evidence appeared against them. We are sorry to learn that the murderer has not yet been traced, but trust that he will not escape the hands of justice. The mayor and magistrates did not leave the scene of riot until after one o'clock in the morning.

New York, Dec. 28.

By Dewitt Clinton, Mayor of the City of New York.

Whereas, a number of disorderly persons, with a view of insulting the congregation of the Roman Catholic church, assembled on the night of the 24th instant, and violated the public peace. And whereas, the peace of this city was again violated on the night of the 25th instant, in Augustus-street, and several of the watchmen, while in the faithful discharge of their duty, were abused and wounded; and Christopher Luswanger, one of the said watchmen, was inhumanly stabbed and murdered. Now, therefore, in order that the perpetrators of the said crimes may be discovered and brought to condign punishment, I do hereby, in behalf of the common council, offer the following rewards, to wit: two hundred and fifty dollars for the discovery of the murderer of the said Christopher Luswanger; a reward of one hundred dollars for the discovery of the leaders of the disturbances at the Roman Catholic church, and a reward of one hundred for the discovery of the leaders of the disturbances in Augustus-street. The said rewards to be paid on the conviction of the offenders.

And I do hereby require the magistrates, constables, marshals, and watchmen, and all other persons entrusted with the preservation of the public peace, to be vigilant and active in detecting the said offenders, and in preventing and suppressing future disturbances. And I do also earnestly recommend to the citizens generally, in cases of future riots and unlawful assemblies, to prevent their children and domestics from leaving home, and to retire immediately to their houses when requested by the magistrates.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto subscribed my name, and caused the seal (L. S.) of the Mayoralty of the said city to be affixed, this 26th day of December, Anno Domini 1806.

DEWITT CLINTON.

By one of the inscrutable ways of Divine Providence, which seldom permits a murderer to escape even in this world, the person who committed the attrocious act mentioned in the above proclamation of the mayor, was apprehended on Saturday evening, and is now in Bridewell. On that evening, a little before the rising of the moon, a Mr. Menzies was accosted in Greenwich-street, opposite the Bear-market, by a stout man, who enquired if he was not an Irishman? Being answered in the affirmative, he further enquired if he was not a captain of a vessel? Receiving the same answer, he told Mr. M. that he wished to get off, and would make him his confidant if he would befriend him in carrying his design into execution. He then drew from his bosom a dagger, and threw it into the street, saying, "With that dagger, the night before last, I killed a watchman and stabbed another, and I want to get out of the country."

Mr. M. thereupon took him to Mrs. Sutton's tavern, in South-street, where he was amused until some watchmen were sent for, who seized him in the bar-room, and conveyed him to the police-office. On examination, a lath hatchet was found in his bosom, which he said he used to split wood with.

Jan. 1, 1807.—The ship Eleanor, forty-three days from Goree, bound to Charleston, with slaves, arrived at Nassau on the 27th of November, in want of provisions and water, with only two seamen able to do duty, the remainder sickly: left Goree on the 17th of October, all in good health. On the 21st, the slaves revolted, and rose to such a pitch, that they were obliged to fire upon them before they could get them drove below. During the contest, several of the slaves were wounded, and three jumped overboard. William Parker, a seaman, who was bruised in a shocking manner in his head by the slaves, was unfortunately wounded in the hip by a musket-ball, of which wounds he died on the 23d.

Harrisburg, Jan. 3.—On Monday last, the sentence of the law was executed on James M'Gowan, in the suburbs of this borough, for the murder of Jacob Eshelman. Although the day was one of the coldest experienced this season, a large number of both sexes assembled, at an early hour, about the jail, with a view to catch a sight of the unhappy object. About twelve o'clock the culprit was brought out of the prison, when a lane was formed by the several militia companies which attended on the occasion: in this opening he marched, with much firmness, behind the cart which contained his coffin, to the gallows. Here he expressed a desire to address the spectators, and begged a little liquor to exhilirate his spirits: as he was thinly clad, and the weather intensely cold, some of the gentlemen on duty, offered him a bottle, containing about half a pint, to taste. This he took, and, before any interference could be made, he drained it to the last drop. The effects of this rather changed the tragedy to a farce. He became enraged with the executioner; tore off part of the mask the latter had put on to conceal himself, and even knocked him down from the cart. Indeed, such was his behaviour, in these his last moments, that it in a great degree eradicated that compassion which many felt for him during his confinement. He was launched into eternity precisely at one o'clock.

Statement of the distances from Nashville to the mouth of the Paskagota River, on the route taken by general Adair, in December, 1806, and January, 1807.

From Nashville to Duck River	50
Duck River to Tennessee River	75
Tennesse to M'Intoshville Chickasaws	90
M'Intoshville to Pidgeon Roost (Fulsom's)	49
Pidgeon Roost to Holstone's	50
From Holstone's to Anderson's	50
Anderson's to the cross paths (trading road)	76
Cross paths to ford of Sinterbagne (Salter's)	30
Salter's to Crosbey's	2
Crosbey's to the Mobile path or trading road	8
Thence to the upper settlements on the Chickasawhay or Paskagola	10
Thence to Gattin's	36
Thence by water to the mouth of Paskagola	90
	616

We cannot vouch for the correctness of the four last counts; but believe the aggregate will be within ten miles of the truth.

Charleston, Jan. 6.—On Friday last, the crew of the British ship Croydon, Williams, at anchor in this harbour, mutinied, and the captain fired upon them, and wounded

two of the seamen, of which one is said to have since died in the hospital of his wounds. The seamen in the harbour manifested, on Saturday, a disposition to be riotous, and to commit some outrage upon other British vessels in the port, the Croydon having went to sea that morning. In consequence, the governor, on Saturday evening, ordered out a very strong military force to preserve the peace of the city.

A letter from Mr. Nissen, Danish Consul at Tripoli, to Captain W. Bainbridge, late of the United States' Frigate Philadelphia, dated at the Lazaretto, Leghorn, Jan. 13, 1807.

DEAR SIR,

On my arrival at Leghorn, I found a dispatch from his majesty's department for Barbary affairs, including the letter dated Gibralter, July 27th, 1805, which was sent by you to his majesty's minister at London, accompanied by a silver urn, as a present to me from you and the officers of the United States' late frigate Philadelphia.

Accept yourself, dear sir, my most sincere acknowledgments, and please, in my name, to thank the officers for this distinguished mark of your and their friendships. I know nothing that could have given me a greater pleasure than this present, not for the nominal value; the materials were indifferent to me; I don't doubt but that you are persuaded thereof; but I consider it as a constant recollection of friends I respect, who probably never again all will meet together with me at one place or at one time, and who collectively have given me this pledge of their friendship as a remembrance; and so it shall be to me.

I can only repeat here, what I often as well verbally as in writing have declared, that you and your officers have over-valued the few services I have been so happy as to render you during your captivity at Tripoli, and for which I have been fully paid by the satisfaction my endeavours to serve you always gave me; but the very limited power I had was the cause that I could not follow, in every circumstance, the dictates of my heart or my desires in this respect.

Finding at Leghorn captain D. Porter, I have thought it incumbent upon me to avail myself of the opportunity to deliver this letter to him. He will transmit it to you, and at the same time he has accepted my verbal thanks for his share in the above-mentioned present as one of those friends whose recollection shall be dear to me, and whose constant health and happiness is my invariable wish.

With these sentiments, and with the greatest respect, I have the honour to remain, &c.

New York, Jan. 14.—We have this day to record a most singular circumstance.

Four years ago next March, Mr. Cornelius Van Verst, jun., son of Cornelius Van Verst, Esq., the owner of Powles-Hook and the adjacent land, absented himself in the night, and no authentic information was ever received of him, though his father and his wife had been repeatedly told that he had been seen in different places; and his wife was always of opinion that he was living.

On Monday last, a man employed in the cedar swamp, near Snake Hill, discovered the bones of a man complete, and a gun alongside of them. Recollecting the circumstance of young Van Verst, he communicated the discovery to his family, and yesterday a jury was called to the spot where the bones lay, accompanied by old Mr. Van Verst, a physician, and others. On examination there was no doubt on the minds of the jury of inquest, and others present, of the bones being the remains of Cornelius Van Verst, and that his death was occasioned by discharging his gun with his own hands.

The circumstances which lead to this discovery are these:

The deceased left home in the dead of the night, in consequence, it

is said, of a dispute with his brother. He took nothing with him but his gun and ammunition; but left in his desk 400 guineas and other valuables. The gun which he took with him was the same that was found with the bones, the muzzle pointed to the left breast; and it was found that the bones near the muzzle of the gun, and also where its contents came out near the right shoulder, were much shattered, and some of them broken. These circumstances were conclusive, that Mr. Van Verst had thus made away with himself.

The bones were yesterday conveyed to the Burgen church-yard and decently interred.

Jan. 13.—Yesterday, a man by the name of Dunamore, and one or two *alias* names, was convicted of forgery. When the verdict was brought in, the prisoner, repeating the word *guilty*, drew a pen-knife and stabbed himself three times. He is yet alive, and will probably recover. He was genteelly dressed and his deportment decent and becoming.

Interments in the City and Liberties of Philadelphia, from the first day of May, 1806, to the third day of January, 1807.

Diseases.	*Adults.*	*Chil.*	*Tot.*
Abortion	1	1	2
Abscess	3	0	3
——— in the lungs	1	1	2
Aneurism	1	0	1
Annorexia	1	0	1
Apoplexy	26	0	26
Asthma	9	0	9
Atrophy	3	2	5
Burns	4	8	12
Bite of a dog	1	0	1
Cancer	6	0	6
Caries	1	0	1
Casualties	10	15	25
Catarrh	1	0	1
Carbuncle	1	0	1
Childbed	5	0	5
Cholera Morbus	7	134	141
Cholic	6	1	7
Consumption of lungs	156	12	168
Contusion	1	1	2
Convulsions	20	48	68
Decay	44	26	70
Diabetes	1	0	1
Diarrhœa	31	15	46
Dislocations	1	0	1
Dropsy	29	10	39
——— in the chest	3	0	3
——— in the brain	2	9	11
Debility	1	0	1
Drowned	15	8	23
Dysentery	18	27	45
Drunkenness	6	0	6
Dyspepsia	2	0	2
Dyspnoea	1	0	1
Epilepsy	1	0	1
Eruptions	0	2	2
Erysipelas	3	2	5
Fever, intermittent	9	1	10
——— remittent or bilious	31	2	33
——— inflammatory	5	0	5
——— hectic	2	0	2
——— malignant	1	0	1
——— nervous	11	1	12
——— puerperal	1	0	1
——— typhus	31	0	31
Fractures	2	1	3
Gangrene	3	0	3
Gravel	1	0	1
Hernia	3	0	3
Hooping cough	0	32	32
Hæmorrhage	5	1	6
Hydrophobia	0	1	1
Inflammation of brain	7	4	11
——————— lungs	15	9	24
——————— stomach	5	1	6
——————— bowels	11	16	27
——————— liver	12	1	13
——————— bladder	3	0	3
Indigestion	1	0	1
Imposthume	2	0	2
Insanity	20	0	20
Jaundice	1	0	1
Locked jaw	2	0	2
Measles	0	2	2
Mortification	1	6	7
Old age	34	0	34
Palsy	14	0	14
Pleurisy	11	1	12
Rheumatism	4	0	4
Scrofula	4	1	5
Sore throat	1	6	7
Small pox, natural	2	16	18
——————— inoculated	0	2	2
Stone	0	3	3
Scurvy	2	0	2
Still born	0	60	60
Sudden	5	1	6
Suicide	7	0	7

Syphillis	15	4	19
Teething	0	23	23
Schirrous tumours	1	0	1
Thrush	0	1	1
Ulcers	3	0	3
Vomiting	0	1	1
Worms	0	45	45
Wounds	1	0	1
Diseases unknown	18	22	40
Total	729	615	1344

New York, Jan. 16.—Yesterday morning, between twelve and one o'clock, a fire broke out in a building occupied as a chocolate manufactory, in the rear of Beekman-street, and, before it was got under, consumed two small wooden buildings, besides the one in which it originated.

Boston, Jan. 17.—It is with peculiar regret we record, that about half past one o'clock, yesterday morning, the new and elegant building of the Columbian Museum, owned by Messrs. Bowen and Doyle, was discovered to be on fire, and which, with a part of the valuable collection, was soon destroyed. The fire is supposed to have taken, by some accident, in the story in which M. Marten exhibited his experiments and phantasmagoria, as advertised in the papers. Some time before the flames were seen, a loud report was heard, supposed to be the explosion of some chemical preparation, and which was the cause of the disaster. We are confident not the smallest blame can attach to Messrs. Bowen and Doyle, for want of care and vigilance; and at half past 11 o'clock, on Thursday night, Mr. Doyle was in the Museum to see if all the fires and lamps were extinguished. It is remarkable, that Thursday was the anniversary of the destruction of the Museum by fire, in 1803. At that time, Mr. Bowen, then sole proprietor, did not feel it incumbent on him to solicit the public aid in the re-establishment of his institution. But this second calamity has so impaired the means of the proprietors, that an appeal to the public benevolence, we understand, is an indispensable duty. We hope the appeal will not be made in vain; and that a liberal subscription will enable them to re-erect their building, and re-establish an institution which has done credit to the town; afforded an innocent amusement to our citizens and strangers; and been a magnet which has attracted wealth from the interior. The loss is estimated at twenty thousand dollars.

After the fire had subsided, a very melancholy catastrophe occurred. A great part of the south wall of the Museum fell into the chapel burying-ground, and killed six young men, and wounded several others. Those killed are William, son of of captain Michael Homer, aged eleven, a promising youth; John, son of Mr. Philip Condon (one of the pressmen employed in the Centinel office), aged fourteen; Henry Fullerton, aged twenty, an apprentice of Mr. Richard Thayer, housewright; Isaac Peabody, of Shirley, an apprentice of Mr. John Leman, blacksmith, aged fifteen; Joshua Urann, apprentice of Mr. Aves, cooper, aged seventeen; and James D. Beals, apprentice of Mr. Jennings, wheelwright, aged thirteen. We do not understand that any of the wounds are mortal.

Norfolk, Jan. 15.—On Tuesday night, between the hours of eight and nine o'clock, a fire was discovered among some rubbish at the rear of an old frame house now pulling down, at the intersection of Main and Church-streets. It was providentially descried by Mr. Gandrel, on his return home from a masonic lodge which he attended, who immediately gave the alarm of fire! and who, with the assistance of his servants, got it under in time so as to prevent the destruction of that quarter of the borough, which inevitably must have been the case, as the wind blew fresh, and the combustion was alongside of a number of wooden buildings.

In consequence of this diabolical attempt, we are told, there is a party of the inhabitants to patrole the

streets every night. Notwithstanding this very necessary and laudable precaution, we would suggest to our police having a guard placed over every building now pulling down in the borough, as it is from them particularly, during the present dry season, that most danger of fire is to be apprehended.

We congratulate the inhabitants of this borough on our police having at last displayed some acts of vigilance. At noon, yesterday, the public were gratified with the sight of *gaming-tables* on fire, opposite the Market-house. They were taken by the constables out of a house in Commerce-street. We are told that there is *a branch or two* of some of the *New York banks* in the same street. It is also astonishing with what celerity these *travelling banks* find out the most commercial part of a town.

We are sorry to announce the premature fate of one Mr. Jonathan Waldo, attorney-at-law, and a very promising young man, who on Tuesday morning was drowned in Hampton Roads, on his passage from Alexandria to this place, by being knocked overboard by the boom. He was a native of Ware, state of Massachusetts.

Philadelphia, Jan. 17.—A son of Mr. Lex, in Market-street, was run over by a loaded cart near his father's house, and killed on the spot.

A few nights since, a man, a lodger, in Eighth near Vine-street, was beaten so severely that he died soon after.

As Mr. Thomas, of Abington, was returning home from the city, on Saturday last, he was stopped by two footpads, who robbed him of between two and three hundred dollars in bank notes.

Another robbery was committed, a few days since, on the Germantown road. In this instance the thieves missed their aim, and only got five or six dollars.

The brig Washington, formerly of Philadelphia, but purchased on the African coast by captain Trask, was cut off by the natives at Ryie, in the river Gambia, on the 1st October: two of her crew were killed, and one made his escape. The captain was on shore during this transaction. She had on board thirty-eight slaves.

New York, Jan. 20.—Died, yesterday morning, about eleven o'clock, of a wound in the body, received, it is supposed, in a duel the preceding evening, David Thompson, Esq., harbour-master of this port, about thirty-eight years of age.

New York, January 23.—On Wednesday night, an attempt was made to set fire to the store No. 29, Beekman-street, occupied by D. Hulet and Co. A corn-broom, with a lighted candle, together with rope-yarn, was thrust into a cat-hole of the store, and, before it was discovered, had burned the hoops off a flax-seed cask; and in a very short time would have enveloped the whole building, and probably others, in flames. On this occasion it becomes proper to mention, that the watchmen are not sufficiently attentive to their duty; for, within one hundred yards of the spot where this incendiary attempt was made, stands a watch-box, and we are informed that no watchman was to be found at the time of the alarm.

St. Mary's, Geo., Jan. 28, 1807.—On the 18th instant, 4, P. M., made a sail a-head: we were then in the latitude of Savannah, in twelve fathoms water, and supposed her to be a vessel lying at anchor; when abreast, she proved to be a ship with her mizen mast cut away and hanging over the quarter; ran under her bow and hailed, no answer; the mate of the schooner, one hand, and myself, went into the yawl to board her; it was about 5 o'clock when we boarded, and by that time the wind and sea were so high that we could not return to the schooner. Found the starboard anchor hove off her bows, but no cable paid out, then paid out scope until she brought up; we then began to examine the ship, and found the lower pintle of the rudder gone, and the rudder beating very hard against the ship; we now found

ourselves very unpleasantly situated; however, could find no water in the hold, which gave us some hopes. At 12, A. M., the other pintle of the rudder gave way, and the rudder knocked a large hole in her counter; at 2, the boat's painter parted and she drifted from us, the schooner out of sight and it blowing a heavy gale with much sea; at 8, got the rudder clear, the schooner in sight, beating up for us; at 4, P. M., got the mizen mast clear from the side, found the ship perfectly tight, and in ballast, with about forty or fifty bbls. of provisions, a number of new sails, a quantity of new rigging, and other valuables; the ship, to appearance, from 280 to 290 tons, strong and good. At 3 o'clock, on Tuesday morning, the schooner got up and came to anchor, hoisted out her boat, came alongside, and took us out. As soon as we got on board the schooner, the captain gave orders to get under weigh, which were obeyed, and left the ship in the situation described. She proved to be the Alligator of Hudson.

Philadelphia, Jan. 30.—In the evening, between seven and eight o'clock, a fire broke out in Buck's Court, in Pine below Fifth-street, said to have been occasioned by a lighted candle being taken into a hay-loft. The adjoining buildings, being principally wooden stables, were soon enveloped by the flames, which threatened to spread extensively; but the alacrity of the citizens, aided by the strenuous efforts of the several hose and fire companies, succeeded in arresting the progress of the fire, after it had consumed thirteen houses and stables. No horses were lost, nor any personal injury sustained.

Extract of a letter from Charles Swan, Esq., paper-maker and post-master, dated Patchogue, L. I., Feb. 2.

"Yesterday morning, about three hours before day, we were all swept away (ten in family) by the mill-dam giving way. We had just time to escape, and did not save an article of bed or body clothes. The mail key, and post-office books, &c. were swept away with the flood."

New York, Feb. 4.—Great damage has been done through the state of Connecticut, by the late storm of rain. Among other losses sustained, the dykes near New Haven, and the turnpike bridge a few miles above this city, were entirely destroyed. The Stratford, Bridgeport, and Suckatook bridges were carried away by the ice. The roads generally through the route from New Haven to this city were much injured by the rain.

Baltimore, Feb. 7.—Yesterday morning, at about four o'clock, we were alarmed by the cry of fire, which was found to proceed from a small tenement occupied by certain black people, situate in Hanover-street, near the brick kilns. The building was entirely consumed in a few minutes; but, standing at a distance from any other, no further injury was sustained.

Richmond, Feb. 6.—The unfortunate circumstance of the death of Mr. John M'Credie, which took place at the barracks of the public guard, on last Wednesday evening, can never be too much lamented. The deplorable situation of his affectionate consort, thus unexpectedly deprived of the partner of her life, and the irreparable loss sustained by his children, who, in one short moment, have become orphans, must excite the commiseration of every feeling heart. His acquaintances also have much cause of regret at the premature death of a gentleman esteemed and respected by them all.

On such an occasion, it is natural that the public mind should be considerably agitated; the circumstances which attended this catastrophe ought therefore to be correctly known.

A fire having broken out in the house of Mr. Shields, in the neighbourhood of the barracks, the alarm-bell was rung, and Mr. M'Credie, among other citizens, was running

hastily towards the place, for the purpose of assisting in extinguishing the flames. He was passing the barracks, and was three times hailed by the centinel on guard, but (in his consequence of his eagerness to get to the scene of the fire, his being out of breath, or some other cause which cannot now be ascertained) did not answer; and was pushing on directly towards the centinel, in his way to Mr. Shields's, with his buckets in his hands; when the centinel fired his musket, and shot him dead on the spot.

Trenton, Feb. 14.—The ice in the Delaware broke up and went down the river in large bodies. From the severe frosts experienced the present winter, the ice had acquired uncommon thickness and solidity, and the even of its breaking up was contemplated as a severe trial of the strength of the new bridge over the Delaware, near this place. We have the pleasure of stating that this experiment has given increased confidence in the the permanence of this useful and noble structure. The piers resisted the heavy shocks which they experienced from large masses of ice, without injury; and the wisdom of their construction was manifested in the effect produced upon large cakes which came in contact with them. These cakes were gradually raised till their weight exceeded their strength, when they broke down and passed through without effecting the least injury to the bridge.

Albany, Feb. 14.—Between 12 and 1 o'clock, a fire broke out in a house belonging to Mr. Robert Dunbar, jun., in the Colonie, which was entirely consumed, together with all the property of Mr. Henry Ennalls, who occupied it.

New Haven, Feb. 17.—Scarce had we done recording the disasters occasioned by the late flood of the 31st ult., when the ravages of another are crowding upon us. On Friday evening last, the 13th, commenced a second storm of rain, which continued until Saturday night, and falling even more profusely than at the former. How extensive are the mischiefs produced by this we have not yet been able to learn, as the roads are so generally broken up that few or no persons visit us from the country. In our immediate vicinage, however, and in the city, the following are some of the damages sustained. What still remained of the old long bridge, leading over the North Haven causeway, is completely carried off, and so is the bridge beyond it, over the Little River, and which withstood the former shock; and so also is what was left of Dragon bridge, even to the pier which supported it near the centre. Within the city, the damage done is very considerable, and much greater than was ever occasioned by any former flood. The deluge of water collected from the hills and on the plains north of the city flowed in such torrents as to overflow not only the creek, but several of the principal streets. The public and individual losses, sustained from this source, are estimated at little less than two thousand dollars.

Among the novel scenes presented to our citizens by this flood, was that of the custom-house boat afloat at the upper end of State-street, with ten or twelve passengers in her, more than half a mile from the head of the harbour, and where a stream is never witnessed, except during uncommon freshes.

Norwich, Feb. 18.—Saturday night and Sunday represented a scene never before witnessed by the oldest inhabitants of Chelsea. On Friday evening last it commenced raining, and continued without intermission until Saturday morning, raising the river Shetucket, at a moderate calculation, thirty feet, six or eight feet higher than the freshet of June, 1789. Several houses in the eastern part of the town were nearly covered with water. Families were taken from their chamber windows, and several barns drifted from their foundations.

Before day light on Sunday morn-

ing the bells were rung to alarm the inhabitants. Dams were built in the street bordering on Shetucket, to stop the water from running through the town.

Strong apprehensions were entertained for the safety of the Shetucket bridge, the stone work on the west side gave way, and teams were employed during the day, carting stone, gravel, &c., to secure it.

Considerable property was destroyed on the wharves, and several vessels went adrift.

Much credit is due to those citizens who volunteered their services to stop the impending fury of the torrent.

Providence, R. I., Feb. 21.—The late freshet has occasioned a greater loss of property, and more real distress, than any event of the kind, in this vicinity, since its first settlement. It began to rain in the night of Friday the 13th inst., and continued with but little intermission till Sunday morning. The two extensive bridges across Seconk River were entirely carried away; all the bridges across Pawtucket River, as far up as we have heard from, are impassable, and except at Pawtucket falls, and Martin's Way, about six miles above Pawtucket, are chiefly destroyed. Several very valuable mills and iron works on that river have been also destroyed, particularly two mills at Woonsocket, belonging to James Arnold, Esq., and the iron-works belonging to Stephen Jenckes, Esq., a little above Pawtucket falls. Two of the bridges over Mosnasuck River, in this town, half the bridge at Pawtuxet, and several other bridges and dams across Pawtuxet river are carried away. Great exertions are making to replace nearly all the bridges, as soon as the season will admit, as the public in general, and this town and its vicinity in particular are greatly incommoded by the almost entire interruption of communication.

Few scenes can equal in grandeur and sublimity the appearance at Pawtucket falls during the whole of Sunday. The quantity, descent, and rapidity of the water, sweeping before it the huge rocks of the abutment of the bridge; the houses, stores, and the iron works, with their foundations, that stood in its way, and, swallowing the whole in the turgid gulph below, filled the mind with astonishment, and excited the highest degree of reverence and awe towards that Being who governs the elements, and holds the mighty waters as in the hollow of his hand. No sooner had the water abated than a scene of horror and dismay succeeded. In the midst of the pleasant village of Pawtucket, and in the place where many industrious and thriving men had been constantly employed in the iron manufactories, not a trace was left of house or shop. The very earth was gone, and the solid and cragged rock alone was left unmoved.

Baltimore, March 1.—On the 23d ult., in the afternoon, while a negro man and his wife were crossing the River Susquehannah on the ice, the ice parted, and these unfortunate persons were carried down the river on separate pieces. When nearly opposite Havre de Grace, they called for assistance from persons who were on the bank of the river, and who brutally scoffed at their danger, and left them to their fate. The gentleman who is postmaster at Havre de Grace put off in a small boat to their assistance: the man was got on shore; but the woman, who was surrounded by accumulating cakes of ice, must inevitably have perished, as the night was setting in, and the boat, unable to approach her, had returned; when commodore Rogers, with a spirit worthy of a seaman, and highly honourable to humanity, taking a piece of plank, passed from cake to cake, until he reached the woman, and brought her to land, when she was nearly perished with cold, being himself benumbed in this noble attempt to rescue her.

Salem, March 17.—About two o'clock, on Sunday morning, a fire broke out in a store on colonel Lee's wharf, in Marblehead, which was

entirely consumed, with a large property (some say ten thousand dollars) contained in it. The upper story was occupied as a sail-loft. A small adjoining store was with difficulty saved, but many goods were lost in removing. The cause of the fire is not known.

Norfolk, March 24.—About eleven o'clock, on Thursday morning, the upper part of Mrs. Coxe's dwelling-house was perceived to be on fire; but we are happy to state, that, owing to the activity of *some* citizens, and the providential great fall of snow which that morning lay on the roof, the flames were got under before any material damage occurred. As usual, not an engine appeared! We are sorry to see the wanton destruction of furniture, &c., which, if a little regularity and cool deliberation were used, might have been saved from destruction.

The wilful and accidental deaths which have come under the notice of the coroner of the city and county of Philadelphia, from the 25th of March, 1806, to the 25th of March, 1807, viz.:

Drowned	29
Died suddenly	23
Of ill treatment	8
By taking laudanum	4
By hanging themselves	4
By cutting their throats	3
By being exposed to the severity of the weather	3
By accidents	5
By shooting himself	1
By strangling themselves	2
By jumping out of a window	1
By stabbing himself	1
Murdered	1

JOHN DENNIS, *Coroner.*

Philadelphia.—Was found, on the 18th of April, at Beck's wharf, below Market-street, the body of a drowned man, unknown, supposed to be about fifty years of age, five feet ten inches high, small nose, blue eyes, had on a light great-coat, blue pea jacket, striped waistcoat, blue trowsers, and check shirt; he had a cast in his left eye.

Also, on the 21st of April, a drowned woman, unknown, found at Waln's wharf; had on a man's great-coat, of a brown colour, and edged all round with fringe, black gown and handkerchef, check apron, dark hair and eyes, had neither stockings nor shoes on, about five feet seven inches high.

Also, on the 1st of May, was found in the college-yard, in Fourth-street, a female child, unknown, under a wheel-barrow. The inquest did not hesitate in giving their opinion that it was born alive.

Also, on the morning of the 3d of May, Mr. George Brown found a male child at Mr. Ely's wharf, wrapped in linen, and lying in the mud; he humanely, and with the feelings of a man, persevered until he got it out. The destroyer of the life of this infant is yet unknown to the public.

It is the duty of every member of society to endeavour to discover the perpetrators of such horrid and inhuman deeds!

Jamaica.—On the 31st of March, a dispute arose on board the schooner Sally and Betsey, Kidwell, of Philadelphia, between Becknell, the mate, and Randall, the cook: the latter received a blow on the head, and expired the next morning. Becknell was secured and committed for trial.

New York, April 1.—Yesterday morning, at two o'clock, a gale commenced from E. N. E., with a heavy fall of snow, and continued till about eleven, blowing most of the time from the east. About twelve o'clock the wind fell to a moderate breeze, and immediately veered round to S. S. W., blew fresh from that quarter till three in the afternoon, when the wind commenced a gale from W. N. W. It is a remarkable fact, that the tide, at eleven o'clock, was from twelve to eighteen inches higher than it has been known by the oldest inhabitants. From this time the water fell, though it was not time for high water till past three o'clock! Many cellars were filled,

and considerable property damaged. During the gale, the brig signal pole was blown down, and three schooners were driven from their anchors, and lodged on the mud flats on the Jersey side, opposite the city, one of which is the Cornelia from St. Thomas. We have reason to fear that the vessels on the coast, those bound in as well as those which recently sailed, have suffered. The ships Frances, Braine, from Greenock, and Four Sisters, Latham, from Ireland, both rode out the gale, the former in the East, and the latter in the North River. The brig Almira, from Savannah, was safe at anchor in the narrows yesterday at one o'clock. Eight or nine sail of vessels went down on Monday morning, and all went to sea except the ships Native and Milford, and the brig Mars, for Amsterdam: they anchored in the bay, within the Hook.

Amidst the bustle along the docks, in securing vessels and getting out fenders, were seen hundreds with their dogs, killing rats, which had been routed by the high tide. Hardly a terrier in the city was unemployed; and we may safely say, that not less than one thousand rats were destroyed on the east side of the town.

During the height of the gale, several flocks of wild geese passed over the city, from the sea-shore; whence they no doubt had been driven by the severity of the storm.

It is also remarkable, that many robins lodged in the rigging of the vessels at our docks, some of which were driven by the wind with such velocity against the masts and spars of vessels, that they fell down dead.

Since writing the above, we learn by the Union pilot-boat, which left the Hook at twelve o'clock, that two ships were ashore about seven miles to the westward of the Hook, one of which had lost two masts, and the other came in from sea during the gale in the morning, probably one of the ships that went out on the preceding day. There was also a large ship ashore outside, about four miles south of the light-house, supposed, from her appearance, to be an indiaman.

From the violence of the gale yesterday afternoon, from W. and W. N. W, we are afraid that the vessels which rode out the easterly wind in the bay, in the morning, went ashore or put to sea.

A schooner and sloop, loaded with wood, were disabled yesterday morning in the narrows; the schooner lost her foremast, and the sloop her boom, and both their wood off deck.

The vessels at our docks did not suffer so much as we had reason to expect. They were completely protected in many places by the extensive piers which have been recently erected, particularly by those at the Whitehall.

Philadelphia, April 7.—The ship South Carolina, Annesley, from Philadelphia, for Canton, parted her cables in the gale on Tuesday, and stood for New York, got within Sandy Hook on Thursday, at three, P. M., and was driven ashore on Shoal Harbour, but has not received any damage, and will be got off. The supercargo, chief officer, pilot, and specie arrived at New York, on Sunday evening last, in two pilot-boats: the specie was safely landed. The pilot informs, that four ships, three brigs, and some schooners were driven ashore in the Delaware at the time the South Carolina parted her cables; and that the ship Sukey, of Portland, for Europe, and a brig, cut their cables and stood off to sea.

The brig Three Apprentices, from Kingston, Jamaica, for Philadelphia, laden with hides and pimento, was driven out the Delaware, in company with the South Carolina, and came into Sandy Hook, driven ashore and bilged: the tide ebbs and flows in her.

New York, April 7.—The tide, for several days last week, has been considerably lower than ever before recollected. On Saturday we counted one hundred and twenty-nine men

wading for oysters on the New York oyster banks, and the shore lined with carts to receive them.

Common oak wood was selling, on Saturday, for five dollars a load, which is at the rate of twenty dollars a cord; and almost every house is now without this article.

We learn from Newburgh, that, on the 3d instant, the snow was three feet deep, and that the sleighing was excellent. The roads were crowded with loads of produce coming to the different landings.

A few days since, seventy tons of streaked bass were taken in one net, and at one haul, near Stonington, most of which were brought to our market, and sold very cheap. This "miraculous draught of fishes" was valued at eight thousand dollars! The net was made and is owned by a respectable company of fishermen, and is three hundred fathoms in length, and six deep.

Philadelphia, April 15, 1807.—*Lewis Hallam.* The managers of our theatre have, liberally, given an opportunity for an expression of the public good-will towards this gentleman at the close of a professional life, not more distinguished by its duration than for its merit.

Mr. Hallam appeared first on the stage in Philadelphia, in the year 1752, at the age of fourteen years. By the desire of the active whigs to the revolution, he withdrew to Jamaica, with the rest of the comedians, at the dawn of that event, and remained there during the war; preserving, with some inconvenience, the title of "The Old American Company." On the peace of 1783, he returned to Philadelphia, and with great exertions succeeded in obtaining a repeal of the legislative prohibition against theatrical exhibitions. From that period the American drama began to flourish; and, in the year 1792, Messrs. Wignell and Reinagle were encouraged to undertake and accomplished (in spite of numberless difficulties and disasters) the establishment of the New Theatre. Mr. Hallam being then induced to repair, with his company, to New York, and continued there until the present month; when, being honoured at his benefit with the most generous proofs of the esteem and attachment of that city, he determined to seek, in the scene of his youth and his celebrity, an asylum for the infirmities of age, and the adversities of fortune.

Till lately, Mr. Hallam has been well known to the public as a manager and principal performer. Our fathers will remember, with delight, the extent, variety, and pre-eminence of his talents, in all the walks of the drama (tragedy, comedy, farce) while they and he were young; and there are few of the present generation, who, notwithstanding the improved state of theatrical performances, cannot bear testimony in favour of his general powers and dispositions to please. In the character of the antiquated beau, lord Ogleby, he was always excellent. He performed it in the year 1767 (the year after the comedy was written) with all the force of youth; and he has selected it in 1807 for his benefit; when, although the boldness of the outline may not be so apparent, the colouring of the portrait will be more soft and mellow from the lapse of time.

April 19.—In the night of the 24th October, 1805, the shop of Mr. Jabez Baldwin, watchmaker of Salem (Mass.), was broke open and robbed of watches and jewellery to the amount of between two and three thousand dollars. In the winter of the same year a part of the articles stolen were found secreted in the hospital in Great Pasture, in the neighbourhood of the town. On the 19th of April last, four boys were walking in the north fields, in another and distinct part of the neighbourhood, when something led them to run a stick into the hollow of an old tree, at the bottom of its trunk, and, on withdrawing the stick, they were surprised to see a gold ring roll out. This led to further examination, when they found deposited there twenty-one gold and other watches, and a quantity of gold jewellery,

which proved to be the remainder of the articles stolen, the whole that were recollected to have belonged to customers, and must doubtless have lain in the hollow of the tree for nineteen months.

The concurrence of circumstances which have attended the loss and recovery of this property is truly remarkable. The amount was between two and three thousand dollars, and in articles of such little bulk as to be easily conveyed away and concealed. From two mere accidents, the whole it is believed has been recovered, at two distant periods of time, and in two separate places, without the exception of enough to reward the villains who stole them with a single dollar; and to this day it remains a mystery who the villians were, and a matter of uncertainty whether they continue in the bosom of the town, or have fled through fear of detection.

The promptitude with which the lads conveyed the valuable property they had found to the person who had been robbed, evinced an honesty of heart which entitles them to the highest commendation.

Philadelphia, April 23.—An operation was performed yesterday in in the Pennsylvania Hospital, in the presence of Doctors Physick, Wistar, Parke, James, Bryant, and other physicians, and about fifty pupils, on a *wen*, upon the face and neck of John Butler, from Halifax, North Carolina, aged about twenty-eight years, which, when extracted, weighed five and a half pounds, and had been growing seven years.

He was an hour and twenty minutes under the doctor's hand, and bore the operation with the greatest fortitude.

The success and cure of James Hayes, from whose face, about eighteen months since, a wen weighing seven pounds was extracted in the hospital, and whose cure having been published in many of the newspapers, and seen therein by the above named John Butler, induced him to come above five hundred miles, in hopes of receiving from the institution the same benefit.

The result cannot be yet known, but there is no apparent symptom at present but what promises well.

It is reasonable however to suppose, that the sooner such protuberances are removed, the chance of a radical cure is much greater; it would be proper therefore for those persons who require relief, to apply for it before the wen attains the enormous size above-mentioned, seeing that by delay their sufferings are increased and the operation becomes more dangerous and critical.

Philadelphia, April 25, 1807.—By accounts published, it appears, that the Pennsylvania Hospital, situated in this city, for the year preceding this date, enjoyed a revenue from interest on money, from commodities raised or sold, from rent, from payments by inmates, from donations, from other sources, of

	$ 45,515 8
Of this sum, the legacies and donations amounted to	9,955 47
The board of solvent patients	17,341 94
The capital stock of the house was valued at	82,742 62

The medical library attached to it contains about eighteen hundred volumes.

The number of patients admitted was five hundred and seventy-one.

	Poor.	*Pay.*	*Tot.*
Remained 4th month 26th, 1806	36	82	118
Admitted from 4th month 26, 1806, to 4th month, 1807	115	338	453
Total	151	420	571
Of whom discharged from 1806 to 1807	114	358	472
Remain 4th month 25, 1807	37	62	99
	151	420	571

Besides the above, attended eight hundred patients, all poor.

Norfolk, April 28.—About 2 o'clock on Sunday morning, the ship Betsey, captain Treadwell, of New York, was discovered to be on fire at Murray's wharf. The fasts were immediately cut, and, it being ebb tide, the ship drifted down the river. We are sorry to add, that the fire could not be arrested, but that this fine ship, with a valuable cargo of tobacco, wheat, and flour, with which she was fully laden, were consumed, except about forty hogsheads of tobacco, the greater part of which was very much damaged. We cannot help remarking that the dangerous practice of having fire and candle on board of vessels at the wharves, after a certain early hour of the night, merits the attention of the police. Every one must be satisfied that if the tide had been flood, the extent of damage that would have ensued is incalculable. A boy, who was in the steerage asleep, was unfortunately burned.

Marietta, April 29.—On the 4th and 5th inst. was launched at this place two United States' gun-boats. Five or six ships are now building here, one of which is four hundred tons burthen.

A company is incorporated for the purpose of erecting a bridge across the Muskingum at its mouth. This company are empowered to raise twenty thousand dollars by lottery for the purpose. The tickets are selling fast, and it is hoped the structure will soon be erected. A banking company is also forming at Marietta with a capital which I think will ensure it extensive credit.

Four meeting-houses and an academy are now building here, and an academy at Athens.

The ferment colonel Burr occasioned here last fall has nearly subsided. In the course of last week was sold at auction, in Marietta, the cargoes of eleven boats seized some time since as the property of him and his adherents.

We have had a very severe winter and backward spring, which has occasioned a great scarcity of grain in these parts; but I hope no persons will suffer for lack of food. A great mortality has prevailed among the horned cattle and swine. This has likely been occasioned partly from the severity of the weather, and partly for want of food. It has now nearly ceased.

May 1, 1807.—The government of the United States proposes to erect a light-house on an island situated at the mouth of river Missisippi. The building has been already designed by B. H. Latrobe, and the following description has been given of it:

The light-house to be a circular tower, forming a truncated cone, twenty-seven feet diameter at the top of the basement, twelve feet diameter at the top of the platform which forms the floor of the lanthern, and eighty-one feet seven inches high from the natural surface of the ground to the said platform. The foundation to be eight feet six inches below the surface of the ground, and twenty-eight feet six inches in diameter, is to rest on piles driven twenty feet into the earth, and to consist of a reversed cupola of brick of twenty-five feet external diameter, seven feet six inches in depth, and bedded in a work of solid masonry one foot thick above the piling, and which must fill the whole space dug for the foundation and not occupied by the said cupola.

A circular basement wall three feet six inches high and two feet three inches wide, is to be built of well bonded broad rough stones, upon the rim of the reversed cupola and upon the solid wall in which it is bedded. The exterior wall of the tower, from the top of the basement, is to be eighteen inches thick, built of wrought free-stones, jointed and bedded, quite through the wall: the exterior to be chisselled fair; the interior rough pointed. Six equi-distant interior brick walls pointing to the centre, two bricks and a half thick each, must be bonded with the external wall, and extend within the tower, their interior end forming the well of the stair-case, which is

twelve feet wide at the surface of the ground. These buttress walls, which must be founded upon reversed splayed arches turned on a brick wall erected on the rim of a smaller inverted cupola within the larger one, are to be united together, along the exterior line of the stairs, by brick splayed arches carrying the exterior ends of the steps, and extending to the external wall of the tower; immediately upon the steps, thus supported, reversed arches must be turned, the reversed feet of which support the buttresses above.

These arches, forming a succession of recesses rising with the spiral line of the steps, will continue to the elevation of fifty-four feet; and thence upwards, the interior lining of bricks is to be built solidly and well bonded with the external wall to the top of the tower, the three upper courses of free-stones excepted, which are to go through the whole wall in single blocks. The spiral stair-case, twelve feet diameter at the surface of the ground, and eight feet diameter at the top of the tower, is to consist of one hundred and thirty-three steps of Pennsylvania marble, with a nine inch newell, supported on a capped free-stone pillar resting on the centre of the reversed cupolas; the other ends of the steps to be supported by, and to go six inches into the brick buttresses and arches above described. A marble platform is to cover that part of the cupola which is not occupied by the first stairs; and the platform which forms the floor of the lanthern, to consist of ten slabs of marble well jointed together, and projecting three inches beyond the upper course of free-stone. The entrance into the lanthern to be through a sheet iron door sliding on rollers.

Trenton, May 1.—A seal, or what is commonly called a sea-dog, was last week taken in a herring net, just below the Delaware bridge. One was taken in the same place about eight years ago. It is a beautiful animal, and the more remarkable as being considered the link in the chain of creation which unites the fish and the quadruped, a seal partaking of the properties of both.

Baltimore, May 1.—A storm began at about half-past 12 o'clock, and appeared to come from the south-west, but soon veered about to the north, a little westerly. A continued shower of hail, about the size of a marble, fell for half an hour, when the storm became tremendous: large hail stones, or rather lumps of ice, of an irregular shape, many of them larger than goose-eggs were precipitated in a terrible manner for fifteen minutes longer, when the storm ceased. I measured several of the latter, and found them to be about *fourteen inches* in circumference, and one of them weighed *six ounces* after it had been considerably melted.

Philadelphia, May 7.—The city was alarmed in the night, about 12 o'clock, by the cry of fire, which broke out in a wheel-wright's shop in Buck's court, Pine-street, by which the shop was consumed, and a dwelling-house and stable partially damaged, before the efforts of the citizens, aided by the hose and engine companies, could subdue the flames.

Carlisle, Penn., May 19.—On Friday last, a detachment of United States' troops, consisting of one hundered and fifty, marched from this place to Pittsburg, under the command of captain E. B. Clemson. It is due to captain Clemson to say, that we have not seen any detachment in which discipline and sobriety of conduct was more conspicuous.

On Sunday, the 17th instant, about 7 o'clock in the evening, we had a smart shower of rain, and for some time the hail fell very fast, but we have not heard of any damage being done. The largest of the hail was of the size of common marbles.

By a gentleman who lives on a branch of Big Beaver, two or three miles from Mercer town, in Mercer county, we are informed, that when digging his cellar, about thirty feet above the channel of the creek, and

three or four below the surface of the earth, they came into a bed of sand, which continued to the depth of the cellar, but of different stratas in the sand, they found a muscle shell petrified into stone. From the different colours of the sand, and finding the shell, there can remain no doubt of this part of the earth having been formed by the overflowing of the waters at some former period.

The same gentleman, in cleaving a block of free-stone, about three feet thick, found stone coal in the centre of it.

Portland, May 21.—One of the most daring robberies and attempt at murder was committed last Friday evening, between 10 and 11 o'clock, in Bath; perhaps never equalled any where. Captain Thayer, master of a brig from Providence, called at Mr. Winship's public-house to pay some money to a gentleman whom he expected to find there: after waiting till 10 o'clock, and the person not coming, he set out with an intention of going on board his vessel. The moon gave considerable light, but was occasionally obscured with clouds. Just as he got at the head of the wharf, and within a few rods of his vessel, two ruffians rushed out from behind a building, one of them seizing him by the throat, asked him if his name was Thayer; being answered in the affirmative, the other searched his pockets, and took therefrom his pocket book, containing four bills of the L. and K. Bank, of one hundred dollars each; he then fired a pistol, the muzzel of which was placed against his side; the ball passed through his coat and waistcoat, and struck against one of the buttons of his suspenders, leaving an entire impression of the size of the bullet thereon, and some of the lead was also left on the button. The force of the ball was so great that the button was driven into his side some ways, and the parts around for several inches were dreadfully bruised, and has caused him to lose a considerable quantity of blood. It is allowed by every person that has seen the wound, that a more providential escape from death never perhaps happened. After the villains had fired, they took from him his watch, and then left him precipitately, thinking they had prevented him from making any alarm. The whole transaction was so instantaneous, that captain Thayer could not distinguish their countenances. One of them was considerably taller than the other, and had on a great-coat; the other had on a short jacket and white trowsers. Search was immediately made, but no discovery.

Louisville, Georgia, May 29.—The gin-house of M. Shelman, Esq., of Louisville, Georgia, was consumed on the 21st ult. by a fire occasioned by the friction of the gin. Buildings and cotton to the amount of ten thousand dollars were destroyed.

Raleigh, N. C., May 21.—On Friday evening last, the plantations in the neighbourhood of this place were considerably injured by a hail-storm. Its ravages were chiefly confined to the waters of Crabtree. Some of the hail-stones the next day measured nine inches in circumference! It not only beat the growing corn into the ground, but knocked off most of the fruit from the trees, and in some places the ground is covered with the verdure of the pines and other growth, which it has entirely left naked; killed lambs, pigs, poultry, and birds; crippled several grown cattle, and did considerable other damage. The next morning was remarkably warm, which is singular immediately after a hail-storm.

Newburyport, May 25.—Drowned yesterday, about one mile above the Rock Bridge in Haverhill, Mr. Joshua Wead, captain Matthew Pettingill, Mr. Benjamin Cole, Mr. William Hoit, Mr. Samuel Blanchard and Mr. John Foss, all of Haverhill. This unfortunate, melancholy accident was occasioned by the sinking of a boat. On Saturday evening, Mr. Wead, who was a master ship-builder at Haverhill, with his men, brought a brig down the river, which they had launched,

and yesterday were returning in a boat with eleven men, and reached about a mile above the bridge, when, having considerable sail on the boat, and the wind blowing violently, shipped a wave, filled, and immediately sunk, near the middle of the river, when, dreadful to relate, six men of the eleven were drowned. One of the men, on reaching the shore, alarmed the neighbours, who assembled and proceeded to the place; but, alas, too late; the unfortunate men were sunk. Search was immediately made for the bodies, and about three hours after the sad affair, when the gentleman who politely communicated to us the information left the place, only one was found: the search for the others was continued. Mr. Wead was a worthy, industrious man, a ship-builder; four of the others were ship-carpenters, and one a blacksmith. The loss of these respectable and valuable men will be severely felt in Haverhill. They have all left families to mourn their sudden and melancholy loss.

Philadelphia, *May* 28, 1807.—On Thursday, the 21st inst., the general assembly of the presbyterian church in the United States met in this city. The session was opened by an appropriate sermon by the Rev. Dr. Miller of New York. The Rev. Mr. Alexander, of Philadelphia, was chosen moderator, and the Rev. Mr. Cathcart, of Yorktown, Pennsylvania, was appointed clerk of the assembly.

On Monday evening, a charity sermon was preached in the presbyterian church in Pine street, by the Rev. Mr. Gideon Blackburn, for missionary purposes. The sum collected upon this occasion amounted to five hundred and fifty dollars.

Cincinnati, *Ohio*, *May* 25, 1807.—A singular occurrence took place here on the twenty-third instant. The governor, pro tem. (Mr. Kirker), from the entreaties of a woman, pardoned a man who had been sentenced to receive ten stripes for robbing general Findley, receiver of public monies at this place. The people, who had been waiting to see the fellow whipped, were enraged. They made an effigy of the governor, placed it on the pillory, gave it ten lashes, and then put fire to it; and, as it burnt, the air rang with acclamations. This was a scene which, I believe, has never been witnessed in any country. The former governor (Mr. Tiffin) was elected a senator to congress the last session of the legislature, since which Mr. Kirker, speaker of the senate, has acted in his place.

May 25.—Tuesday night last (says the Providence Gazette) another unsuccessful attempt was made on the Exchange Bank in this town. The villains, it is supposed, entered the cellar by means of a false key, and, finding the vault well secured, they bored and sawed through the floor into the bank room, but found nothing worthy of their attention.

St. Mary's, *Geo.*, *May* 31.—We are very much agitated with an Indian alarm, which I am really inclined to think will cause a failure of our June court. Two Indians have been down at Mary's River, to a place called Traders Hill, and killed a man of the name of Greene, in a most horrid and cruel manner. It appears that they were well fed and treated by Greene; after which he took his seat in a shade out at the door, when they both took their guns, fired through him, and cut open his bowels with their knives. His wife and children, we understand, were not molested in their escape.

William Ashley and some others went after them two days since, if I mistake not; and last night, about twelve o'clock, an express came with orders from general Floyd, ordering out our troops of horse in pursuit of the offenders, and some of the foot, if necessity requires. A party of the horse, some say six or eight, are gone.

Philadelphia, *June* 16, 1807.—On Saturday last, the court of oyer and terminer for the city and county of

Philadelphia, held by the honourable judge Rush and his associates, closed its session.

The grand jury returned true bills against the following persons:

London Hilton was indicted for burglary into the house of Tobias Barret, with *intent* to commit a felony, plead guilty, and was sentenced to undergo imprisonment at hard labour for one year.

Pompey Jackson and Stephen Taylor, for a burglary in the house of Joseph Burrel, and stealing a variety of articles, plead guilty, and were sentenced each to imprisonment at hard labour for two years.

Jane Henry, charged with receiving sundry articles, knowing them to be burglariously stolen from Joseph Burrel, was convicted on trial, and sentenced to imprisonment at hard labour for three months.

Leonard Chew, also convicted, on trial, of burglary into the house of Charles Brown, and stealing sundry articles, was sentenced to two years imprisonment at hard labour.

Henry Frazier, charged with burglary into the house of John Meany, and stealing divers articles, plead not guilty; was convicted by the jury, and sentenced to three years imprisonment at hard labour.

Littleton Justice plead not guilty to an indictment for burglary into the house of John Hart, with *intent* to commit a felony, was convicted, and received sentence to suffer imprisonment at hard labour for one year.

John South was convicted, after trial, of a burglary into the house of William Hankinson, and stealing sundry goods, and was sentenced to hard labour for two years.

Cæsar Brown plead not guilty to a charge of burglary into the house of Samuel Moore, and stealing sundry articles, was convicted by the jury, and sentenced to three years imprisonment at hard labour.

Stephen Taylor was likewise convicted of a burglary into the house of Samuel Moore, and sentenced to three years imprisonment at hard labour, after the expiration of the two years for the burglary into the house of Joseph Burrel.

Jane Henry was convicted of receiving sundry articles, knowing them to be burglariously stolen from Samuel Moore, and was sentenced to three months imprisonment at hard labour, after the expiration of the three months imprisonment for receiving goods burglariously stolen from Joseph Burrel.

Hugh Anderson was convicted by the jury of forging a five dollar note of the Bank of Pennsylvania, and was sentenced to pay a fine of fifty dollars, and to undergo an imprisonment at hard labour for five years, a twelfth part of which imprisonment to be in the solitary cells.

Hugh Anderson was also indicted of forging a hundred dollar note of the bank of Trenton, and was acquitted.

John Holmes and Daniel Harris were charged with burglary and larceny in the dwelling-house of William Hankinson, and were acquitted by the jury.

Maria Collins, indicted for burglary in the house of Daniel Shoemaker, with intent to commit larceny, was acquitted.

Daniel Dougherty was indicted for murder, and the trial put off for want of his witnesses.

Boston, May 28.

Officers of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, for 1807.

Hon. John Adams, LL. D., Esq., *president;* Rev. Samuel Webber, D. D., *vice president;* Hon. John Davis, Esq., *recording secretary;* Hon. John Q. Adams, Esq., *corresponding secretary;* Rev. James Freeman, *treasurer;* Dr. William Spooner, *vice treasurer;* Rev. John Lathrop, D. D., *librarian;* Mr. Allen Pollock, *cabinet keeper;* Hon. Robert T. Paine, Esq., LL. D., Hon. Francis Dana, Esq., LL. D., Hon. Benjamin Lincoln, Esq., Hon. Loammi Baldwin, Esq., Rev. John Lathrop, D. D., Dr. John Warren, Eliphalet

For ten years, to M. de Groos, for the manufacture of royal Windsor soap.

To James White, of Paris, for fifteen years, for an improvement in weaving.

For fifteen years, to Francis Rotch, of Bourdeaux, for improvements in the construction of whale boats and other light vessels.

To A. Argand, of Paris, for some improvements upon his celebrated lamp.

For fifteen years, to Jean Baptiste Mollerat, of Paris, for a method of making soda artificially.

For five years, to Pierre Daujon, for the invention of a machine for enabling sick persons to have their beds made or changed, without occasioning pain or shaking.

To M. Seguin, for five years, for a lamp with a double current of air.

For fifteen years, to Pierre Jandeau, for improvements in the stocking-loom.

For ten years, to Miss Honoree Anne Elizabeth Basçon, for an invention in distilling, by which a fourth is gained by one operation or heat.

For fifteen years, to Louis Jape, for a machine to make screws, nails, pins, &c.

For ten years, to the sieur Trelozier, for an improvement in chimnies, stoves, and furnaces.

For fifteen years, to the sieur Cochui, for a machine to raise or lower water, earth, &c.

For ten years, to Pierre Koch, for a new furnace for the carbonization of wood.

To Isaac Berard for ten years, for a new distilling apparatus.

For five years, to the sieur Vantrin, for an engine to put in motion, at once, fifty looms for the weaving of tissues.

For five years, to Claude Rodier, for a machine to clean cotton.

For five years, to Pierre Gros, for a machine to bruise grain.

For five years, to Henry Meunier, for the invention of a means to make muslin of silk.

For five years, to the sieur Hadrot, for the invention of a filtering coffee-pot without ebullition.

For five years, to Francis Le Blanc, for the improvement of a machine for shearing cloth.

For five years, to John Stevenson, for the invention of a process to paint all kinds of earthenware.

16. Klaproth has published a memoir on sulphuric acid, the result of many experiments, from which it appears: 1. That 100 parts of sulphuric acid of the specific gravity of 1.850, are composed of concrete acid 74.04, and of water 25.06; or of sulphur 31.05, of oxygen 42.09, and of water 25.06. 2. That 100 parts of concrete acid are formed of 42.03 of sulphur, and 57.07 of oxygen. 3. That 100 parts of calcined sulphate of barytes contains, of barytes 67, of sulphur 14, and of oxygen 19.

17. Gardeur, an artist of Paris, has invented a method of imitating the most beautiful sculptures, by means of old paper reduced to paste. This new composition adds to a wonderful lightness and solidity the requisite truth in the expression of the figures. Almost all the theatres and public halls in Paris are decorated with statues and other ornaments made of this composition. They are as cheap as common painted paper; and, from their lightness, may be transported with little expence.

18. Vauquelin has laid before the National Institute, an account of experiments on hair; the object of which was to ascertain the nature of the animal matter of which hairs are formed, and if there was any thing analogous in the animal economy. The results of these experiments are, that black hair is formed of nine different substances: viz. 1. an animal matter, which forms the greatest proportion; 2. a white concrete oil; 3. another greenish gray oil, very abundant; 4. iron; 5. some particles of oxyde of manganese; 6. phosphate of lime; 7, carbonate of lime; 8, silex; and 9, a conside-

rable quantity of sulphur. Red hair does not differ from black, except that it contains a red oil in place of a greenish black one. White hair differs from the others, inasmuch as the oil is nearly colourless, and it contains some phosphate of magnesia, which is not found in others.

19. Biot lately read an essay at the National Institute, on the changes occasioned in bodies by the action of light. And count Rumford read a treatise, at the same time, on the adhesion of the particles of water to each other.

20. Laugier discovered in meteoric stones some *chrome*; though before he undertook the analysis, it was supposed that the component principles of these stones were silex, iron, manganese, sulphur, nickel, with accidental traces of lime and alumina. The analysis of M. Laugier was made upon a meteoric stone, which is said to have fallen at Verona in the year 1633. The inferences drawn by him, and which are countenanced by M. Vauquelin, are, 1. That the five meteoric stones of Verona, Barbotan, Ensisheim, Aigle, and Apt, contain, besides the principles just enumerated, about the hundredth part of *chrome*. 2. That it is very probable, that all meteoric stones possess this principle, since they resemble each other in their physical and chemical characters, and have all, as far as has hitherto been ascertained, the same origin. 3. That in many cases, in order to attain the requisite precision of chemical analysis, it may be expedient to treat the same substance with acids and alkalies, as a principle may be overlooked in one case which will be obvious in the other.

21. At the distribution of prizes recently made by the Academy of Fine Arts of the city of Bruges, a medal was adjudged to a young man, who, though deprived by nature of the use of his hands, has nevertheless produced drawings admirable for their execution.

22. The new king of Holland has undertaken the presidency of the Society of Arts and Sciences of Haerlem, and in future its title is to be the "Royal Society of Haerlem."

23. The government of the kingdom of Italy founded an annual competition for one heroic drama and two comic dramas, which are to be represented at the theatre *della Scala*. A prize of 60 sequins will be given to the author of the best heroic drama, and one of 40 sequins to each of those whose comic dramas shall be crowned.

24. The corridor, leading to the library and the museum of the Vatican, will be the finest in the world. From the present entrance to the museum, to the place where the iron gate used to stand, the statues, busts, and basso-relievos, found in the different store-rooms of the Vatican are now placing. The tablets on which the busts are fixed are composed of antique pieces of frieze and entablatures, and they rest upon pillars and fragments of columns which once embellished the edifices of ancient Rome. By means of this arrangement the gallery will become of some utility to architecture, that important branch of the arts, unfortunately too much neglected in the museums of sovereigns and of the curious. From the place where the iron gate stood, to that where you descend to the lodges, persons are employed in encrusting the walls of the gallery with innumerable inscriptions of the Pagans, and of the early christians. The chevalier Canova places the works of art, and Cajetan Marini classes the inscriptions. The wall which formerly separated the lodges and the corridor is no longer in existence; the space which it occupied is transforming into a handsome vestibule, which will be ornamented with columns and other relics of antiquity. Thus the whole length of one part of the lodges is added to that of the corridor, which increases it nearly 225 feet. It will afford a view truly magnificent, and worthy of Rome. In the present vestibule of the mu-

seum, are seen several epitaphs on the Cornelian family, and the celebrated sarcophagus of Scipio Barbatus. Accordingly, throughout an extent of 1200 feet there will be a series of authentic monuments, both of art and science, of more than twelve centuries, commencing with the first Punic war. This gallery, the largest in the world, will lead to the library and the museum of the Vatican, or, to speak more correctly, that superb gallery will form an integral part of an unrivalled whole, exclusively dedicated to the arts and sciences.

25. The Seatonian prize at Cambridge is this year adjudged to the Rev. Charles Hoyle, of Trinity College, for his poem on Paul and Barnabas at Lystra.

26. Lord Lansdowne's manuscripts, sold lately by public auction, form one of the richest collections of original state papers which have ever been possessed by an individual. A large portion of them were lord Burleigh's; from whose secretary, till they came into the hands of lord Shelburne, their descent may be regularly traced. Among other curiosities, they contain a great many royal letters, mostly, if not all, originals.

27. It has been long known that water is best preserved in casks that have been charred: it has now been ascertained that salted provisions may be kept in this way for a great length of time. The crews of two Russian ships, which lately sailed round the world, were so healthy, that only two men died during the voyage. They lived entirely on provisions kept in charred casks; and the beef, at the end of three years, was as pleasant as when they first went out.

28. The emperor Alexander has suppressed the imperial seminary for the reception of young ladies, founded by the empress Elizabeth on the same model as the convent of St. Cyr in France. In the preamble of his edict he declares, that those funds may be used to greater advantage, if applied to the education of those who are intended to serve their country and that the education of a female, being limited to domestic management, she will learn it sooner in her father's house, than in a sumptuous establishment, where it is vainly attempted to teach the sciences, the knowledge of which nature forbids them.

29. Colonel Skioeljebrand, the master of the Italian named Acerbi, has lately published an account of their journey to the North Cape, in one volume, 8vo. This work does not contain the same details as that of Acerbi, but is considered as being entitled to more credit.

30. M. Leopold de Buch, member of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, and the friend of baron Humboldt, has gone to Iceland for the purpose of making physical and geological researches.

31. Dr. Bozzini, of Frankfort, has invented an instrument, which he denominates the *light-spreader*. It is intended to afford an inspection of the interior of wounds, or the various parts of the human body, such as œsophagus, the vagina, the uterus, &c. The inventor is preparing for the press drawings and descriptions of this curious instrument.

32. Von Mechel is occupied, in company with Humboldt and de Buch the travellers, Tralles the mathematician, and Bode the astronomer, in preparing a grand work for publication. It is to be a copper-plate, which will exhibit a general picture of 150 of the highest mountains on the globe, with an exact measurement of their several heights above the level of the sea. Mr. Riddel is doing the same thing in England from his own original materials.

33. M. Fischer, of Vienna, has discovered a new process to whiten straw. He dresses it in muriatic acid, saturated with pot-ash. The straw thus prepared never turns yellow; is of a most shining white; and acquires great flexibility.

34. The Easter catalogue at Leipsic contained 3077 articles, among which there were 257 of di-

vinity; 231 of jurisprudence, including political economy; 66 of philosophy; 177 on education; 59 on natural history; 88 on mathematics; and 77 on geography and relations of travels. The last Michaelmas fair was less abundant; the catalogue did not exceed 644 articles. The works contained in the Michaelmas catalogue are, morality, 31; education, 79; belles lettres, 29; the fine arts, 15; ancient and modern languages, 58; divinity and sermons, 88; law, 55; physic and surgery, &c., 93; mathematics, 30; natural history, &c., 45; rural economy, &c., 49; economy, useful arts, &c., 50; commerce, 11; political economy, 21; history, 31; biography 19; literary history, 8; geography and topography, 28; travels 16; statistics, 5; novels, &c., 63; almanacks, 61; genealogy and chronology, 2.

35. Klaproth has taken great pains to investigate the component parts of native cinnabar; and he finds, as results of his experiments, that Japan cinnabar, exclusive of its foreign parts, contains

Mercury	84.50
Sulphur	14.75
	99.25

But that the cinnabar from Neumaerktel, in Carniola, consists of

Mercury	85.00
Sulphur	14.25
	99.25

36. Professor Ploust has discovered that the nitrate of soda is an economical article for fire-works, in the following proportions: five parts of the nitrate, one of charcoal, and one of sulphur, afford a powder which gives a flame of a reddish yellow, of considerable beauty; and the mixture burned in a metallic tube, will last three times as long as the same charge of common powder.

The same chemist has examined the birds' nests of the East, and finds them to consist merely of a single cartilage, uniform in its texture. He boiled one in water, which became soft, but was not separated in its parts, and lost only four hundreths of its weight.

37. Vauquelin and Robiquet have discovered a new vegetable principle in asparagus, which is crystallizable like the salts; but is neither acid nor neutral, and of which the solution in water is not affected by any of the re-agents usually employed to ascertain the presence and nature of the salts dissolved in water. They have also discovered another principle, which seems to resemble manna.

38. Portalis, the minister for public worship, is sending missionaries to China, and they are to set off this year, accompanied by a skilful astronomer.

39. It is known that L'Histoire de la Medecine, by Le Clerc, was not printed in France. It is become very scarce, and is only to be found in a few libraries. M. Amoureux, desirous of doing service to young practitioners, is preparing a new edition, which will be embellished with remarks and plates. He likewise intends publishing, in continuation of that work, a new edition of Freind's History of Physic, with plates and observations appropriate to the present times.

40. The class of mathematical and physical sciences of the National Institute of France, at its meeting on the 7th of July last, proposed a prize, to consist of a gold medal of the value of 6000 francs (250*l* sterling), for the best theory of the perturbations of the planet Pallas discovered by Dr. Olbers. The motives for proposing this subject, and the plan of operation recommended to the competitors, are explained in the following observations: "Geometricians have given the theory of perturbations with sufficient extent and accuracy for all the planets formerly known, and for all such as may still be discovered, as long as they are contained in the same zodiac, and have only an inconsiderable eccentricity. Mercury was till our time the most eccentric of planets, and had also the greatest in-

clination; but its small size, and its situation at one of the limits of the planetary system, render it incapable of causing any very great alterations in the motions of the other planets. The Georgium Sidus, discovered twenty-five years ago by Dr. Herschell, is at the extremity of the system. With a diminutive mass and a moderate eccentricity, it has the smallest of all known inclinations; so that the formula which had served for Jupiter and Saturn were more than sufficient for this modern planet. Ceres, discovered five years since by M. Piazzi, having, with an eccentricity as considerable, an inclination of 10° 38′, ought to be subject to greater and more numerous inequalities. It nevertheless appears, that all the astronomers who have endeavoured to determine them, have been satisfied with known formulæ, the developement of which does not exceed the produce of three dimensions of the eccentricities and inclinations. Those of five dimensions have been employed in the *Mechanique Celeste*, after a form of M. Burckhardt. The same astronomer has since presented to the Institute the general and complete developement of the third, fourth, and fifth orders; but this degree of precision would not be sufficient for Pallas, whose eccentricity is greater than that of Mercury, and the inclination 34° 38′, that is, even five times as great as that of any of the old planets. Nay, it is difficult to conjecture what powers and what dimensions of the products it might be allowable to neglect; the calculations, therefore, might be of such length, and the formulæ so complex, as to deter the geometricians and astronomers who are best able to execute such an undertaking. This consideration induced the class, two years ago, to propose this subject for the prize to be adjudged in August 1806: but the time appearing too short, and the number of planets having been encreased by the discovery of Juno by M. Harding, whose eccentricity seems to be still greater than that of Pallas, and whose inclination of 13° exceeds that of all the other planets, excepting Pallas; the class thought fit to renew the subject with certain modifications, and a double premium. Accordingly, it invites geometricians and astronomers to a complete discussion of all the points of this theory, so as not to omit any inequality that can possibly be of any consequence; and as these inequalities cannot be accurately determined unless the elliptical elements are perfectly well known, it is indispensably necessary that the competitors should not confine themselves to a statement of the numerical coefficients of the equations; it is the analytical formulæ which it is of the most importance to know, that the more exact amounts of the mean distance of the eccentricity, of the periphelion, and of the inclination, may be successively substituted in their stead, in proportion as those elements shall be perfected. The competitors may even dispense with giving any numerical amount, provided the analytical expressions be presented in a manner sufficiently detailed to enable an intelligent calculator to follow their developement, and to reduce them into tables. From these general formulæ will result another advantage, namely, that the planets Ceres, Pallas, and Juno being at distances from the sun so nearly alike, that it cannot yet be decided with any certainty which of the three is the farthest or the nearest, the formula given for Pallas may likewise serve for the two others, as well as for any other planet that may hereafter be discovered, and whose eccentricity and inclination may be contained within the same limits. The memoirs intended for the competition must be written in French or Latin, and will not be received after the 1st of October, 1808. The prize will be adjudged on the first Monday in January 1809.

41. A discovery has been made at Lyons of a highly interesting piece of mosaic-work, representing chariot and horse races in a circus. It is

fourteen feet and a half in length, and nine and a half in breadth. M. Artaud has made a drawing of it, which is in the hands of the engraver. He observes, that the tails of the horses are here represented as docked in the English fashion, and imagines that this is the only instance of the kind that can be produced on antique basso relievos. He supposes that this monument must have belonged to the house of Ligurius, superintendant of the public sports in Lyons, and pontifex maximus of the temple of Augustus, from which his habitation could not have been far distant. It is well known that he gave sports of this kind to all the corporations of the city, who in gratitude engraved for him an inscription, which is still extant, and contains these words: *Ludos Circenses dedit.*

42. Lebrun has invented a method of coating the inside of trumpets with a lac, which unites to smoothness tenuity, without any injury to the sound of the instrument. By this means he prevents the deleterious consequences arising from the oxides of copper being collected in the insides of trumpets, and thus inhaled into the lungs.

43. Mongolfier has invented a machine which he denominates a *calorimeter* or apparatus for determining the degree of heat, and of the saving that may be made in the fuel employed. This apparatus will serve for various purposes, such as to boil water at a small expence. It is useful in domestic economy. To render its effect complete, the smoke, or rather burnt air, should be deprived as much as possible of its caloric, which ought to be entirely employed in augmenting gradually the temperature of the water which envelopes the chimney. The air thus cooled, being heavier than that of the atmosphere, determines the current of air in the furnace, which can only be obtained in upright chimnies by sacrificing a very considerable quantity of heat.

44. Dr. Hager has been appointed professor of the oriental languages in the university of Pavia, the first school of learning in Italy.

45. It appears from an accurate calculation, that upwards of 200 Sunday schools have been instituted in Wales, which afford instruction to about 30,000 children, and persons more advanced in years.

46. The workmen employed in improving the harbour of Rurghead near Elgin, Scotland, have lately discovered a bath, excavated from the solid rock, supposed to have been the work of the Danes, who had a strong fortress there. The bath is about thirty feet square, four deep, and having a walk round it, with a recess in one corner for dressing and undressing; and an excavation or basin in the opposite corner, the use of which cannot be certainly known. It seemed to have been rooted with wood, as considerable remains of burnt timber were found in the bath.

47. In the north of Ireland, a project has been submitted to a number of public spirited peers, and gentlemen of the counties of Londonderry, Tyrone, and Fermanagh, not very dissimilar from that which promises to be of such great national utility in the north of Scotland. It is the construction of a navigable canal, from the great lake of Erne, which is forty-five miles in length, to the River Foyle, which communicates with the city and harbour of Londonderry. By means of such a canal, a great extent of dangerous coast navigation would be avoided; besides the water communication between the numerous towns on the shores of Lake Erne, and the great northern port of Londonderry, would be far more short and expeditious. The expences, however, would be very considerable, on account of the high lands which intervene.

48. *London, December* 1, 1806.—In spite of every prohibition, British goods continue to find their way in vast quantities into France. They are exported upon French orders. It is easy to insure them for the whole transit to the town in France

where they are to be delivered to the purchaser. They are introduced at almost all parts of the line of the land confines of the French empire. No sooner are they received into the French merchant's warehouse, than evidence is procured that they are of French manufacture; the proper marks are stamped; and the goods, whether cottons, woollens, linens, or whatever other article of British fabric, are in a state to be exhibited in proof that the manufactures of France quite outrival the British. The writer has had this information from gentlemen who have a concern in the trade to which it relates.

Saxony, being the principal seat of those cotton manufactures of Germany which rival the British, the devastation it has suffered cannot but tend to increase the demand of that part of the continent for British goods, as soon as the country shall be in a state to admit the correspondence and transfers of trade to be renewed in it. The manufactures of linen in Osnaburgh, and other parts of Germany, are necessarily injured by the war. The consequences are highly favourable to the Scottish manufacture of coarse linens for the West India market. The war, consuming vast quantities of soldiers' clothes and camp-equipage, increases the demand of coarse British woollens for Russia, and for the ports on the Baltic in general.

The returns for the British goods imported into France are made in bills of exchange on commercial men and cities, with which it is perfectly lawful for the subjects of France to have pecuniary correspondence. From these, other bills of exchange then transmit the value to England.

The adventures to Buenos Ayres have been immense. The goods which that market wanted were easily provided upon short notice; for they were chiefly such as it had been usual to manufacture for the West India market, and formerly for Spain, to be re-exported to South America by the Spaniards themselves. They were likewise, in great part, the same species of goods which we have been accustomed to make for the Portuguese market, to be sent to the Brazils. Sir Home Popham's letter, in no respect intended to impose on the merchants, and written with competent information, pointed out both the extent of the market, and the species of the goods wanted. From the circumstances of the war, the previous scarcity of British goods, almost of primary necessity, throughout South America, must have been very great. Even the Anglo-American trade to the Havanna, and the smuggling concourse of the Spaniards to Jamaica, could not furnish any thing like an adequate supply. The exports, of whatever kind, that the inhabitants of Spanish America had to give in payment for imports were at the same time accumulated in the country for want of opportunities of safe and lucrative exportation. Not only a large demand, therefore, but wealth with which to make adequate returns, meets the wishes of our merchants who have sent out goods for sale at Buenos Ayres. The returns will be in bullion, hides, tallow, cottons, dyeing stuffs, and other materials the most essentially useful in our manufactures. The industry of the inhabitants of Spanish America, roused by the new possibilities of bringing their produce to prompt and advantageous sale, will furnish their returns every season in greater abundance, so that the trade may continually increase.

The successes of the French in Germany have had one effect that was naturally to be expected. They have occasioned much property to be transferred to England, from the countries which Bonaparte is now over-running. They have induced foreigners to leave here large sums, which were otherwise to have been remitted abroad, in the due course of trade. Not less than three millions sterling, foreign property, is said to have been placed, within these few days, in the English funds.

The activity of the woollen manu-

factures, in both the north and the west of England, is a good deal quickened. The demand for the light cloths, which it has been usual to manufacture for the West India market, has been of late greatly increased. The general use of the spring-shuttle enabling one man to perform the work of two in weaving; of the gig-mill for dressing and mosing, which at once abbreviates the labour and improves the execution; of the shearing machine, to finish the dressed cloths for sale; has exceedingly advanced the manufacture within these few years, in the counties of Gloucester, Wilts, and Somerset. The quantity of the labour employed in it in these counties is now, in fact, three times as great as that which they employed but a few years since.

The gradual reduction of the African slave trade threatens consequences to the woollen, the linen, the cotton, and the hardware manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, which nothing can avert but an inalienable monopoly to the country of the whole trade of Spanish America. It is certain, that the linens, woollens, and hardware, exported for the purchase of the slaves on the African coast, were among those sorts of manufacture by which the people of Lancashire, Birmingham, and Yorkshire got the largest profits. It is equally certain, on the other hand, that without a continued importation of negro labourers, the coffee-plantations cannot be enlarged, nor can Trinidada, the most promising of all our sugar islands, be brought to any due extent under cultivation.

49. *January* 1, 1807.—No progress has yet been made in the unrolling of the six Herculaneum MSS. which were presented by the king of Naples to his royal highness the prince of Wales, about two years ago. A corner only of one of the rolls was unfolded, and the whole was afterwards submitted to the action of steam, under the direction of an eminent chemist, but without the desired effect. Instead of feeding and giving pliability and consistency to the tinder, it has more firmly united the mass, and in a great measure obliterated the writing. The ill success of this experiment has discouraged further attempts on the other five rolls.

It will be recollected, that at the same time the king of Naples presented these rolls to the prince of Wales, an equal number was sent to the National Institute of France. As we have heard nothing of the progress made in unrolling them, we are to suppose that the French have had no better success than ourselves. The lovers of literature are naturally anxious to hear of the steps which will be taken by the new French government at Naples, relative to the entire library of these curiosities, which it is to be feared was abandoned by the old government when that unfortunate country was lately evacuated.

50. The chancellor's prizes at Oxford for the present year are adjudged to Edward Garrard Marsh, bachelor of arts, late scholar of Wadham college, and now fellow of Oriel College, for the English essay "Posthumous Fame;" and to Henry Allan Johnson, of Christ church, for the Latin verses "Trafalgar;" also the prize by a private donation, to John Latham, of Brazennose College, for the English verses "Travels of Discovery into the Interior of Africa."

Sir Roger Newdigate's prize has been adjudged to John Wilson, esq. gentleman commoner of Magdalen College, for English verse on the following subject: "A recommendation of the study of the remains of Grecian and Roman Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting."

Two of the college prizes are adjudged as follows: "Patriotism," an English essay, to Mr. Twyford; "Nelsonus," a Latin essay, to Mr. Papendick.

51. A new wet dock, the first of the kind in North Britain, was lately opened at Leith with great ceremony. This dock has been wholly executed within high water mark,

Pearson, LL. D., Caleb Gannet, Esq., Hon. John Davis, Esq., Rev. James Freeman, *counsellors;* Rev. Samuel Webber, D. D., Rev. John Mellen, Rev. James Freeman, Rev. John Elliot, D. D., Rev. Jedediah Morse, D D., Rev. Henry Ware, D. D., Hon Josiah Quincy, Esq., Mr. Levi Hedge, *committee of publications.*

BRITISH

AND

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

CHIEFLY SCIENTIFIC.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

1. *November* 1, 1806.—THE Academy of France at Rome, which, under the auspices of the French government, and the indefatigable zeal of its present director Suvée, had been re-established in the Corso Palace, has since been transferred to the beautiful palace of Villa Medici, which the French government obtained from the king of Etruria, and will assume the name of the French School of Fine Arts at Rome. By his exertions, Suvée has prepared convenient accommodations for five students of architecture, five of painting, one of engraving on copper, one of engraving on stone, and especially cameos, and one of musical composition. These students, after having gained the principal prizes at Paris, go to Rome to finish their studies, and there find all possible means of facilitating their progress.

In the old gallery of the palace, which before contained a beautiful collection, Suvée has placed casts of the finest statues, busts, vases, basso relievos, ornaments, and fragments, the originals of which in marble are preserved in the *Museo Pio Clementino*, in the Capitoline Museum, and in different palaces at Rome, at Florence, and in France. This collection is so numerous and so well arranged, that it may with truth be affirmed to be the richest and most beautiful in the world. It is worthy of remark, that it serves alike for the French artists and those of Rome, who easily obtain admission to it. To contribute in every point of view to the instruction of the pupils, the indefatigable director has placed a select library in the palace; and that they may always have before them the best antique figures, he has ornamented with the most beautiful statues, basso-relievos, and busts, not only the hall and the apartments on the ground-floor, but likewise the portico or vestibule of the palace, where he has placed busts of Raphael and Poussin; so that at every step the minds of the pupils are struck with some monument which furnishes them with an opportunity of reflecting on the beautiful in the arts of design.

Suvée has not shown less anxiety to embellish the garden and the alleys. He has converted this spot into a real Lyceum, in which the young students may enjoy recreation, and refresh their imaginations after their labours. A plantation of trees will in a few years render it one of the most delightful and frequented places in Rome.

2. The Pomfret and Arundel marbles in the schools at Oxford, are removed to the Radcliffe Library. Their number and value are enhanced by the addition of sir Roger

Newdigate's collection. The statues, and other articles of exquisite workmanship, are placed in the upper part of the building; the inscriptions and inferior specimens in the colonnade beneath.

3. A beautiful monument to the memory of Schwartz, the German missionary, was finished in November, 1806, at London, by Mr. Flaxman, intended for India. The subject is a bas relief, representing the rajah of Tanjore's last visit to the venerable priest while on the bed of death. It was chosen by the rajah himself: one or two of the Rajah's ministers are represented as accompanying him, with three boys, in the foreground, belonging to the school which Schwartz superintended for many years. The inscription is in English.

4. The projected improvements in Westminster Hall are these: The new court of king's bench is to be built on the opposite side of the hall to the common pleas, next the speaker's court-yard. This has long been wanted, as the present court is considerably too small for the accommodation required. That which is now the exchequer-bill office is to be converted into a room for the accommodation of the grand jury, and several adjoining apartments are to be built for the convenience of the judges' attendants, and the officers of the court. On the exterior part of the hall, next the abbey, four coffee-houses are to be erected for the accommodation of barristers, witnesses, &c., and all the sheds which now disgrace that venerable pile are to be pulled down, and the entrances to the hall repaired and beautified.

5. Mr. Arthur Young, the father of agricultural science in England, after many experiments and observations on the subject, affirms that sea-salt acts as a very powerful manure, especially when added to dung. He says, also, that very considerable benefit has been found from the application of sea-water to vegetables, and that when mixed with dung or compost dunghills, it possesses a septic power that promotes putrefaction.

6. Mr. Logan has made many experiments on gypsum, with a view to ascertain its qualities, and the differences between the American gypsum, and that found in Europe. His conclusions are, 1. That there is no difference between European and American gypsum. 2. That it acts as an immediate manure to grass, and afterwards in an equal degree to grain. 3. That one dressing will continue in force several succeeding crops. 4. That it does not produce any remarkable effects used as a top-dressing for grain. 5. And that on stiff clay soils it will produce an increase of vegetation, but not sufficient to pay the expence of the manure. The quantity per acre should be six bushels.

7. From other experiments of Mr. Young, charcoal is found to be a good manure for vegetables; but nothing in comparison to hydrogen gas, from iron filings, and dilute sulphuric acid thrown up to the roots every day. In both cases the principle is the same; for charcoal decomposes the water, imbibing the oxygen, and giving out the hydrogen for the nourishment of the plants.

8. A periodical work, published by Storch, in 1806, and entitled, Russia under Alexander I, furnishes the following particulars: In the German provinces of the Russian empire there are at present six printing establishments, three of which are in the government of Livonia, one in Courland, and two in Esthonia. These are, 1. The printing-house of the university of Dorpat, established in 1789 by M. Genzius, who, in 1802, had the title of printer to the university. Ever since its establishment, a political gazette has been printed there. 2. The printing-house of the crown and city at Riga, established as early 1522. It has always enjoyed the privilege of printing all the church and school-books for that city; it may be considered as the mother of all the foreign printing-houses in Russia. Since the year 1785 it has belonged to Mr. J. D. K. Muller. 3. The same city contains another printing-

house, belonging to M. Hacker, established in 1777. 4. The printing-house of the government of Mittau, where there was probably one so far back as 1584. It is only of late years that it has become flourishing under the direction of M. Steffenhagen, who has conferred signal benefit on his country by circulating in it many excellent German and Lithuanian works. 5. The printing-office of the town and gymnasium of Reval, founded while the country belonged to Sweden. Its proprietor is M. Minuth, who publishes the only newspaper that appears at Reval. 6. Gressel's printing-office, established in the same town in 1802. All these houses, especially that of Mittau, are furnished with a great quantity of types.

9. Esmark, a learned mineralogist, and formerly the pupil of the celebrated Werner, has lately discovered, at Arandal, in Norway, a new mineral, of which he has made a distinct species, under the name *Datolithe*. M. Klaproth has analysed this mineral, and found it to be composed of

Silica - -	36.5
Lime - -	35.5
Boracic acid	24
Water -	4

Hence it appears to be a corate of lime mixed, perhaps accidentally, with silica. It is of a white colour, more or less tinged with green. It is found in such large masses as to be considered a rock, and in crystals of the shape of rectangular prisms. Its fracture does not exhibit a lamellated texture; it is imperfectly conchoidal, with small cavities, and of an oily lustre. Some masses are composed of large grains adhering to each other, but perfectly distinct; and of which the surface is far from being brilliant. This substance is not so hard as feldspath. It is semi-transparent, and weighs 2.93. When exposed to the action of the blow-pipe, it swells into a large white mass, and at last becomes converted into a glass of a pale rose colour. It dissolves without the aid of heat in nitric acid, leaving the silica at the bottom of the vessel.

10. A circumstance, deserving of the attention of naturalists, occurred in October, 1806, at the menagerie of Schonbrunn, near Vienna. The male Bengal tiger kept there is usually fed with butcher's meat; but being at times subject to a kind of ophthalmia, he is then provided with young living animals, whose warm blood contributes to his cure. Being in this state, the female whelp of a butcher's dog was thrown in to him; the tiger was just then couched with his head resting on his fore-feet. The whelp recovering from her first alarm, approached and began to lick his eyes, which was so agreeable to the tiger, that, forgetting his appetite for carnage, he not only spared the animal, but even testified his gratitude by caresses. The bitch, having entirely overcome her fears, continued to lick him, and in a few days the tiger was cured. Since that time the two animals have lived in perfect friendship; before he touches his food, the tiger always waits till his companion has satisfied herself with the dantiest morsels. He puts up with every thing from her, and even when she bites him in play, he shows no resentment, but is continually caressing her.

11. Never were such pains taken as within these few years to vary the number of musical instruments. An artist of Prague, named Holbein, has invented one, to which he has given the name of *Uranikon*. One of its properties is to swell the sound progressively from *pianissimo* to *fortissimo*, and *vice versa*. This instrument likewise produces the sound of a horn, the echo of which seems to reverberate in the mountains; and the *adagio* is sung, *ad libitum*, by one of the sweetest female voices.

12. At a late meeting of the Academy of Sciences at Munich, Baader exhibited the model of a machine of his invention, which he denominates Hydrometrograph, and which has already been tried on a large scale

at the salt-works of Reichenhall. By means of this machine, the measure of any quantity of water that has passed through a pipe of certain dimensions is determined and marked in cubic feet.

13. A literary notice, at the same capital, proposes the publication of an engraving of a bird, which has never been methodically described by any naturalist, and which is mentioned for the first time in the second volume of Gmelin's Natural History. This bird, which is truly a curiosity, has four sorts of wings, or rather a very thick collar of feathers, which he spreads over his back when it rains in the manner of an umbrella. The editors of the same work promise a description of several other original species, which cannot fail to prove interesting to ornithologists.

14. At a meeting of the Academy of Useful Sciences at Erfurt, M. Buchner read a memoir on inoculation for the natural small-pox, and on the result of the first vaccination at Bergen, in Norway. He gives a circumstantial account of the latter, and states a remarkable case which fell under his observation in the performance of his medical duty. He was sent for to a child a year old, belonging to captain Paasche, who commanded a ship, and was absent at the time on a voyage to France. The mother imagined that the symptoms of disorder proceeded from dentition; but M. Buchner soon discovered all those that usually attend the natural small-pox. Before its eruption, he several times endeavoured, but in vain, to prevail on the mother to have her other two children vaccinated. The next day the eruption appeared, the small-pox became malignant, and on the sixth day the child died. The disconsolate mother then repaired to the physician, imploring him to save her two remaining children. He resolved to vaccinate them, after a suitable preparation. He directed them both to be removed to the most distant apartment in the house, to be put into a warm bath, to be well rubbed, and all the clothes they had before worn to be changed. The vaccination was successful; the punctures became inflamed; the eruption took place at the proper time; and the tumours approached to perfect maturity. But after the eighth day, the two children had a very restless night; they felt an inclination to vomit, head-ache, in short all the symptoms which usually precede the natural small-pox. The next day the eruption of the latter actually took place, and the bodies of the two children were covered with it. This small-pox was neither of the favourable nor yet of the malignant kind, and both the children got very well over this crisis. But it was remarkable, that the vaccine pocks continued their progress, and their scabs did not fall off till after the desiccation of those of the small-pox.

15. New patents for the following inventions were granted by the French emperor at Rambouillet, on the 21st August, 1806:

For fifteen years, to Relfurt Sposor, for a new corn mill.

For ten years, to Anthony Barré, for improvement in the machinery for distillation.

To Messrs. Eraud, for fifteen years, for improvements of the harp.

For fifteen years, to André Favre, of Toulon, for a portable horizontal press, intended to press all kinds of substances, particularly olives.

To widow Garnest, of Paris, for ten years, for a machine for weaving combed wool.

To Pierre Charles Boulay, for ten years, for a method of fixing the colours of a great number of metallic oxides.

To Francois Bergeaud, for ten years, for a hydraulic engine to raise water and other heavy bodies.

To Firmin Didot, for ten years, for his new invention in stereotype printing, being that of giving the letters in what is called the English written character, being without any interruption between the letters.

For five years, to sieur Berlioz, for a carriage which he calls the flying pinnace.

which added greatly to the difficulty and expence of the undertaking. The space occupied by the dock is above five acres, but, including the ground on its sides and ends, upwards of fifteen acres have been taken from the sea; on these parts it is intended to construct graving docks, building slips, sheds, and warehouses. The sea wall of this dock being exposed to the accumulated swell from the German Ocean, required to be very strong. The stones on the outside of the wall are bound together by chain bars of iron, inserted in the different courses horizontally, and connected by vertical bars of the same metal; thus uniting the whole in one common mass. The binding the work in this manner with iron was a very necessary measure, as during the building of the wall it frequently happened that stones of several tons weight were displaced by heavy eastern swells. The quay walls, and those of the entrance lock, are also fine massy pieces of masonry, and the whole is so constructed that every stone forms part of an arch. This dock is only the first part of a most magnificent plan, extending to Newhaven, where the principal entrance is intended to be made to the largest dock, which will have depth of water sufficient to contain frigates of the first size.

52. A new mineral has been discovered in one of the Gwennap mines, Cornwall, where it forms an incrustation round projecting particles of spongy pyrites, which appear to contain a considerable portion of cobalt. The colour of the mineral varies from a light ash to a dark brown; it is of a close and polished texture, and breaks like flint. Its particles are very brittle, and, when triturated, give out a strong hepatic odour. It is soluble in nitric and muriatic acids, precipitable by alkalies, and is likely to be of much utility in the arts.

53. A large oblong British or Danish barrow was opened in the parish of Duntesbourne Abbots, in which was found a *kistraen* or *cromlech*, containing about eight or nine bodies of different ages, many of the bones of which, and the teeth, were entire. The whole length of the barrow, diagonally, was about fifty yards; straight over the stones about forty; the width about thirty yards; and the distance between the two great stones twenty-four feet. The barrow was composed of loose quarry-stones, laid in strata near the great stones, and brought from a distance. The largest stone, which has been long known in the country by the name of the *hore-stone*, is of the kind of grey withers, or stone henge: it is flat on the east side, and round on the side which is in the barrow; is twelve feet high from the base, and fifteen in circumference. The other stone lies almost flat on the ground, and is about three yards square, and one foot thick. This covers the *kistraen* which contains the bones, and which is divided into two cells, about four feet square each, and six deep. There are several other barrows in the neighbourhood; and it is singular, that the farm adjoining is called Tack-barrows, probably a corruption or abbreviation of some other name The cones are re-buried; but the barrow and the tomb will be left open some time longer, for the inspection of the curious.

54. In removing a tumulus a few days since, in the parish of Avening, three remarkable excavations presented themselves. The first was a vault nearly six feet square, and five feet and a half in height, containing eight skeletons, in the most perfect state. The second is about five feet square, containing three skeletons, but by no means in such high preservation as the first. The third is considerably smaller, having only one skeleton, together with the bones of some animals, which no doubt were part of the sacrifice at the interment. This barrow is in the neighbourhood of several others, and about one mile and a quarter from a valley called Woeful Danes Bottom, where there was an en-

campment, and perhaps an engagement between the Danes and the Saxons, about the time of Alfred the great.

55. The following nomenclature of ancient architecture has lately been proposed, with a view to affix precise terms to each peculiar style in English buildings.

First style.—*Anglo-Saxon.* This will embrace all buildings that were erected between the times of the conversion of the Saxons, and the Norman conquest, from A. D. 597, to A. D. 1066.

Second style.—*Anglo-Norman*, by which will be meant the style which prevailed from 1066 to 1189, including the reigns of Williams I and II, Henry I, Stephen, and Henry II.

Third style.—*English*, from 1189 to 1272, embracing the reigns of Richard I, John, and Henry III.

Fourth style.—*Decorated English*, from 1272 to 1461, including the reigns of Edwards I, II, and III, Richard II, and Henrys IV, V, and VI.

Fifth style.—*Highly decorated, or florid English*, from 1461 to 1509, including the reigns of Edwards IV and V, Richard III, and Henry VII.

From this era we lose sight of all style and congruity; and the public buildings erected during the reigns of Henry VIII, Elizabeth, and James I, may be characterised by the terms of *debased English, or Anglo-Italian.*

56. The result of a course of experiments has been laid before the Hereford Agricultural Society, by T. A. Knight, esq. from which it appears that the *strength* of the juice of any cyder apple is in exact proportion of its *weight.* Thus the juices of the inferior apples are light when compared with the juices of the old and approved sorts. The *forest stire* outweighed every other, until it was put in competition with the new variety produced by Mr. Knight, from the *Siberian crab*, and the Lulham pearmain; nor could any other juice be found equal in weight to the latter.

57. About ten years ago a lease was granted by lord Crewe of an estate in Madely, to Mr. Elkington, the celebrated drainer. It consisted of about five hundred acres, three hundred of which were so unsound, that a person could not even walk upon it. Half of it has been drained, and brought into a state of cultivation. The crops of turnips raised upon it, both of the common and Swedish sort, have been remarkably fine; and the land is become so firm as to admit of their being fed off by cattle. In the succeeding crops, an unusual difficulty has occurred; for though Mr. Elkington, from the extreme luxuriance of the soil, thought it expedient to sow only half the usual quantity of seed, the barley-crops have been so strong, as to be uniformly laid, the grain of course much injured, and the clover and grass-seeds destroyed. Mr. Elkington has, however, been successful in his attempts to render this land more promising by *exhausting* crops. Last year he had ten acres of hemp: the crop was great, and the grass roots such as to astonish the neighbourhood. From the same motive Mr. Elkington has reduced the soil by successive crops of oats, upon lands that have borne two previous crops of corn without manure. He obtained last year the amazing produce of 174 bushels of good oats, from five bushels and eleven quarts of seed sown broad cast. This extraordinary return has been made from land, which a few years ago was not worth one shilling per acre.

58. J. Pierson, esq., read the Croonian Lecture on Muscular Motion to the Royal Society of London this winter. It occupied the greater part of two evenings, in the course of which the lecturer entered into an elaborate detail concerning the heat and pulsations of animals in different latitudes, in order to ascertain their effects on their muscles. As an instance: in this climate the pulse of horses beat 36

times in a minute, that of cows 48, and that of men about 72; in Lapland, and other high northern latitudes, the human pulse does not beat more than from 45 to 50 times in a minute. Mr. P. has made numerous experiments on the muscles, in all which he found the muscular irritability completely destroyed by plunging them in water at the temperature of 96°; electricity, after such immersions, sometimes gave slight symptoms of excitability, but no human effort could ever again restore the muscular fibre to its proper tone and vigour. Cold produced similar effects on the muscular fibre, by instantly destroying its irritability. Hence the necessity of great caution in applying warm water to the surface of bodies recently immersed in water, in cases of suspended respiration, as heat may be equally as bad as cold with regard to its effects on the muscular fibre, which by Mr. P. is considered in some degree the organ of life. Blood he regards as essential to life, only as a stimulus to muscular irritability, and the abstraction of blood occasions death through the want of its stimulating powers to the muscles. The stomach he considers as the most important organ of the human frame, and its irritability is so excessive, that a blow on it will instantly destroy life, though the heart can support a wound some days.

59. The subject of the Bakerian Lecture, by Humphrey Davy, esq., was on some chemical effects of electricity. This ingenious chemist has proved that even in distilled water there is combined both vegetable and animal matter, besides nitrogen gas and salt. Hence he has ascertained that electricity does not generate fixed alkali, but only evolves it.

60. John Austin, of Glasgow, has invented types or figures, formed of burnt clay or porcelain, for painting patterns upon calicoes, or designs for articles to be sewed or tamboured. These types, we are informed, are not liable to be destroyed by fire, nor by lying in a damp place. They may be made to a certain depth, so as to be varied at pleasure to the taste or fancy, the same as letter-press printing types. A certain number may be marked on each type, to ascertain the exact proportion of the price of tambouring or sewing: the rates of the same work being frequently very irregular, for want of a regular standard to calculate them by. They may be made at less than half the price of those cut in wood, are more durable, and finer than any cut in wood.

61. Professor Davy has discovered that the epidermis of the cane, and many other vegetable substances, consists chiefly of silex. He was led to the subject by seeing two canes in the hands of boys at play in the dark strike sparks of fire.

62 Sir Joseph Banks has laid before the Board of Agriculture, a very valuable paper on the culture of spring wheat, which is much practised in Lincolnshire. Besides other details, we are informed that Mr. William Showler dibbled four pecks and a half of spring wheat on one acre and two roods of middling land, which had borne turnips the winter before, and had no extraordinary preparation for this crop; the rows were eight inches asunder, and two inches deep: two grains were put into each hole. The produce was seven quarters, which was as much at least as could have been expected from eighteen or even twenty-one bushels sown broadcast on the same land.

63. By a careful analysis by professor Davy, the following results have been obtained from different kinds of wheat:

	gluten.	*starch.*	*insoluble parts.*
From 100 parts of			
Sicilian wheat	21	75	5
Ditto of spring wheat of 1804	24	70	6
Ditto of good English wheat of 1803	19	77	4
Ditto of blighted wheat of 1804	13	52	44

Hence it may be deduced, that bread made of flour of spring wheat is more nutritious than that made of winter wheat, because spring wheat contains a larger proportion of the gluten or half animalized matter: and, also, that a miller ought not to deduct from the price of spring wheat more than two per cent. on the money price of winter wheat of the same weight, as the excess of the weight of insoluble matter, or bran, is no more than two per cent. when compared with good English wheat. Bread made of spring wheat is less white than that made of the better sorts of winter wheat, but it is more palatable; qualities probably owing to the excess of gluten contained in it.

64. Dr. Wollaston has invented a new portable blow-pipe for chemical experiments. It consists of three parts, so adapted to each other that they may be packed together, one within another. The interior tube is longer than the exterior, and the upper edge of the large end is turned outward, to diminish the effort of the lips requisite for retaining it in the mouth. The small extremity is placed obliquely, that the flame may be carried to a convenient distance from the eye.

65. A late measurement of a degree of latitude, by some Swedish astronomers in Lapland, makes it 1,114,774 *metres*, or 57,200 toises. The degree measured by Maupertuis in 1736 was 57,422 toises more than the new, and probably more correct, admeasurement.

66. Hultz, a Prussian astronomer, published an opinion, in August last, that the sun at that time was undergoing some considerable change. This opinion was founded on a number of spots occupying one-fifth part of its diameter in their length, and one-nineteenth in their breadth. These spots varied in their form, and were perceptibly changed in the course of two or three hours.

67. Buchholz has transmitted to the Academy of Sciences at Erfurt, an account of some new experiments on the ore of platina. The author endeavours to reconcile the contradictions of the English and French chemists relative to this metal. He finds that platina, in its crude state, contain four other metals, viz. osmium, iridium, rhodium, and palladium.

68. The late M. Hadsi Niku, an eminent Russian, founded a school at Cronstadt for the education of modern Greeks. It already contains thirty-four students. The objects of instruction are the principles of religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic, and the ancient Greek. The professors are monks of Mount Athos.

69. Of the literary journals published in Germany, that of Halle is the most read; after this, that of Jena; of other periodical works, the Freethinker is most in request, and after that the Gazette of the polite world. The Minerva of Archenholtz is read with much approbation. The gazette of Neuwied retains its former estimation.

70. Cuvier has found in the gypseous hills, near Paris, fossil bones belonging to a species of *sarigue*, now existing only in America. Several bones of an unknown animal, to which he has given the name of *palæthorium*, supposed to have been eight feet long, and five feet high, have been found in many parts of France. Fossil bones, supposed to have belonged to a small kind of hippopotamus, have been discovered near the Arno in Italy. Teeth and bones, which, after minute observation, Cuvier assigns to the species of hyena now found at the Cape of Good Hope, have been dug up in various parts of Germany and France. A skull with many teeth, preserved in the cabinet of Stutgard, belonged also to that animal; it was found in 1700, near Canstadt, on the east bank of the Necker. The adjacent hills contain ammonites, belemnites, reeds; and M. Autenrieth has discovered in the neighbourhood a whole prostrate forest of palm trees, two feet in diameter. There were found, also, elephant's bones,

cart-loads of horses' teeth, rhinoceros' teeth, and some vertebræ, which seemed to have belonged to the cetaceous tribe. In the same country, the bones of wolves and hyenas have been discovered, mingled in confusion; also vertebræ, asserted to have belonged to a bear of enormous size. "What ages were those," exclaims Cuvier, "when the elephant and the hyena of the Cape lived together in our climates, in forests of palm-trees, and associated with northern bears larger than our horses.

71. The convent in which reposed the ashes of Laura, at Avignon, has lately been sold and demolished; and the chapel, in which a tombstone indicated her place of interment, is transformed into a stable for mules and jackasses. Of the inscription on her tomb nothing now remains but "Laura," . . . . . and "*requiescat in pace!*"

72. The French excel every nation in Europe in projects. In announcing the following new canals which are projected in France, we think it proper to state that fifty of greater extent have been formed in England within the last twenty years. A grand northern canal, in two branches. The first to effect the junction of the Scheld with the Meuse from Antwerp to Venlo. The second, the junction of the Meuse with the Rhine. A canal to unite the Scheld and the Scarpe. A lateral canal, to improve the navigation of the river La Haine. A canal of the Lys to Liperlée. A canal from Charleroy to Brussels. A lateral canal to the Loire: very advantageous to the neighbouring departments for the exportation of their territorial productions and manufactures. A canal from Niort to Rochelle; on which *prisoners of war* are to be employed till they are exchanged. A canal from Nantes to Brest. The plan is to join the Loire and the Vilaine; the Vilaine with the Blavet; to be continued to Port-Launay and Brest, by the rivers Doré, Hières, and Anne.

73. Lalande received, in the month of April, an anonymous letter, in which it is said that a German of high reputation in several sciences discovered, fifty years ago, a remarkable period of 280.000 years for the return of the six planets to the same point of the heavens, and his opinion thereon is requested to be given. The number of revolutions found by the German for each of the planets have been reduced into seconds by Lalande, from the revolution as at present known, and are as under:

Mercury	1162577	8836135098921
Venus	455122	8835595689448
Earth	280000	8835940680000
Mars	148878	8835946519500
Jupiter	23616	8835946544448
Saturn	9516	8835946558608

The French astronomer remarks, that these numbers differ so little, that the deviation from the same precise number of seconds in each sum of revolutions is not greater than the uncertainty in the known durations of those revolutions.

74. Last year was marked by terrible explosions of Vesuvius. On July 28, a concussion shook most of the houses in Naples; in the county of Molina, several towns and villages were almost entirely destroyed, and 30,000 inhabitants lost their lives. Soon after, Vesuvius appeared agitated; and on August 12, a violent eruption ensued, and the lava took its direction towards the sea with incredible velocity. Many naturalists as Humboldt, Buck, the duke Della, Torre, Guy-Lussac, &c. were eye-witnesses of this eruption, and have published accounts of it.

75. It is said that the directors of the East India company, some time since, sent orders to their supercargoes to procure certain elementary books of the Chinese language, for the use of their college at Hertford. Their agent was zealous to obtain them from Pekin, but the government immediately prohibited their exportation, under the severest penalties!

76. The christians at Pekin have lately been exposed to a violent persecution, in consequence of some irregularity in the conduct of persons

of that religion; and a mandarin, suspected of being friendly to them, was put to death.

77. The great importance of breeding and rearing such animals as will make the quickest and largest return of food for man, from the consumption of given quantities of vegetable food, was the principal motive with the late duke of Bedford, and other patriotic noblemen and gentlemen in England, for associating themselves under the title of the Smithfield Club, with the view of encouraging, by an annual exhibition at the time of the principal market previous to Christmas, and by the distribution of premiums, the breeding and bringing to the London market of cattle, sheep, and pigs, fattened in the most economic manner; this being the only rational source from whence to expect a stop to the increase in the prices of butcher's meat. The show this year took place in the large and commodious repository-yard of Mr. Sadler, in Goswell-street, on the 12th, 13th, and 15th of December. James Backwell Praed, Esq. and Mr. Paul Giblett were the stewards for the show, and attended on the 10th and morning of the 11th to the receiving of the certificates of age, work performed, time of putting to fatten, kind and quantity of food consumed by each animal, and other particulars required as conditions from their owners to entitle them to exhibit as candidates for the premiums. The judges appointed for deciding on the comparative merits of the animals shown, and awarding the prizes according to certain principles laid down in the printed conditions of the show, consisted as usual of three gentlemen graziers, viz. lord Somerville, Robert Byng, esq., and Richard Astley, esq., and of two London butchers of eminence, viz. Mr. William Lambert and Mr. Robert Ayres. These five gentlemen spent the whole of the 11th in a careful examination and comparison of the certificates, and of the animals to which they related; and at the conclusion awarded as follows: viz. to John Weston, twenty guineas for a Hereford ox, above one hundred and sixty stone weight; to ditto twenty guineas for a Hereford ox, above one hundred and forty stone weight; to John Edmonds, ten guineas for a Hereford ox, ditto; to Samuel Chandler, twenty guineas for a Devon ox, above one hundred stone weight; to John Westcar, ten guineas for a Hereford ox, ditto; to Samuel Chandler, ten guineas for a Devonshire steer under four years old; to Joseph Lucas, ten guineas for a short horned cow, fatted after her third calf; to Anthony Lechmere, ten guineas for three sheerling long-wooled fat wethers; to John Edmonds, ten guineas for three two-shear long-wooled fat wethers; to Henry King, jun., ten guineas for three two-shear fat South-Down wethers; to George Dodd, ten guineas for a Suffolk fat pig, twenty-three months old; and to his royal highness the duke of York, ten guineas for a fat Spanish and Chinese pig, under ten months old. Besides the above, several fine animals were exhibited, with certificates in due form, viz. oxen by John Westcar, Jonathan Chater, Thomas Pickford, Edmund Waters, Samuel Chandler, John Terrett, and Henry King, jun.; cows, by John Westcar, lord William Russell, and John Humphries; long-woolled wether sheep, by the Rev. Thomas Placket, John Westcar, Humphrey Tuckwell, R. M. Robinson, John Humphries, Richard Hirons, George Inship, and Robert Masters; and pigs, by his royal highness the duke of York, James Butler, and John Humphries. The exhibitors of live stock, not entitled to be competitors for the prizes, were Paul Pell, lord Bagot, Henry King, jun., Joseph Joyner, Robert Masters, Robert Harvey, Thomas Pickford, James Reed, and Montague Burgoyne. It is not a little singular, that while ten candidates appeared for the prizes for long-woolled wethers, only one gentleman showed short-woolled we-

thers, although two prizes were offered for such sheep. Very fine specimens of the *ruta baga*, or Swedish turnip, were shown from the farms of earl Mansfield and Thomas Pickford: we are glad to find these useful and highly nutritious roots coming into very general use with farmers. Some very fine *kohl rabi*, or Hungarian turnip-cabbage, were exhibited by Messrs. Gibbs and Co. Lord Somerville, here and at the dinner, announced an alteration in the conditions of his ensuing spring show of cattle (at Mr. Sadler's yard, on the 2d and 3d of March), limiting his prizes for fat wether short-woolled sheep to such as do not weigh above 25lb. per quarter of mutton, and allowing the grazier as well as the breeder of such sheep exhibited to be candidates for the prizes.

At the conclusion of the show on Monday, the annual dinner of the club took place, at Freemason's tavern, lord William Russell in the chair, supported by many distinguished patrons of agriculture; the company consisted of about two hundred persons, nearly the whole of whom are practically engaged in, or acquainted with, the breeding, rearing, feeding, or sale of cattle: such an assembly could not fail of producing much interesting conversation and discussion. After the usual toasts, and the reading of the judges' report as above, the noble chairman stated that the four first classes of premiums offered of late years by the club, not limiting the oxen or steer shown to any particular breed, such a superiority in favour of the Herefordshire cattle had appeared, that, if longer continued, they might prove discouraging to the other valuable breeds of the country; on which account, the club had determined for the ensuing year to make six classes of premiums for oxen or steers of one hundred and twenty stone weight, or upwards, which have been worked at least two years, ending the 11th of October, 1806, and not put to fatten previous to that day, which have eaten no oil cake or corn previous to the 1st of September, 1807; a particular account to be kept, and rendered to the club, of all which they consume between that day and the 30th of November. The six premiums to be twenty guineas each, as follows, viz. 1. for the best Hereford ox or steer; 2, long-horned; 3, short-horned; 4, Sussex or Kent; 5, Devon; and 6, any mixed breed: and, further to excite emulation in the candidates, an *additional premium* of ten guineas to the owner of the best ox or steer shown in any of these six classes. That, in addition to the above, a seventh premium of ten guineas for oxen or steers of any description, under the weight of one hundred and twenty stone, is to be offered, whether they have been worked or not, if fed without corn or cake. The premiums for fat cows, which have previously borne three calves, for long and short-woolled fat wether sheep, and for fat pigs, to be the same as last year. These alterations in the premiums for the ensuing year were much applauded by the company, as tending to invite greater competition, and form a new era in the useful labours of this patriotic club.

78. The works of the canal on the Isle of Dogs, near London, were so far completed by the 9th December, 1805, as to enable the public opening to take place on that day; and from that period the same has been greatly used, by shipping of every description entering into and going out of the port of London.

From the want of sufficient publicity of the canal's being open, and ready for use; and until, through the medium of the Trinity House, the same had been circulated at the out ports, the use made of the canal, for near a month from the opening, was comparatively small; but there has nevertheless passed through the same, from the opening to the 31st day of March 1806, inclusive, 421 vessels, of various descriptions, carrying sail, from twenty tons and upwards; of which a great proportion were ships of large burthen, besides a great number of lighters, barges,

and boats of various descriptions; and if the transit rates, authorized to be taken at the expiration of three years from the opening, had been received from them, it would have amounted to 619*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*, and this for a period of little more than three months, and at a season particularly unfavourable.

The works now going on, July, 1806, are the deepening the entrances next the river to the level of the lock files, being six feet below low water mark; which is become absolutely necessary, from the increasing use made of the canal, and the expedience of passing as many ships through as possible on the flood tide, and even after high water, when the entrances are deepened as proposed.

The banks of the canal have been also provided with strong oak mooring posts, properly secured by land ties; and the locks have also been furnished with them, and with proper capstans, at the external and internal wing walls.

The foundation of the north external wing wall, at the Blackwall end, has, after much difficulty, been got in, and the wall is now brought up six feet in thickness to within three feet of the coping.

The piles for the foundation of the wall on the south side are driven, and the bearers and planking for receiving the brick-work will be ready in a week; but the unprecedented treacherousness of the soil, a quicksand, together with its depth below low water, has rendered this part of the completion of the work extremely hazardous and tedious.

These works, the completion of which is desirable and necesary, do not interfere with the navigation of the canal; and it is probable that the whole that has been before mentioned, together with the driving fender piles to protect the external wings, and hanging fenders for the protection of the locks, gates, and wing walls, will be completed by midsummer next.

The arrangements made for the management of this great and useful public undertaking have been dictated by a desire to afford every possible convenience and facility to shipping, at the same time studying a rigid economy, so as to leave little if any doubt, that the sum of 3,846*l.* 8*s.* per annum, granted by parliament for the management, will be amply sufficient for the purpose.

79. As some labourers were lately digging clay in a brick-yard at Bottesford, near Grantham, in Lincolnshire, England, about nine feet from the surface, they discovered the head and horns of an animal, of the bull kind, of extraordinary dimensions. The weight of the horns, with a piece of the frontal bone, is 31 pounds; the span, from tip to tip, is two feet one inch, and at the greatest bulge of the horns, three feet two inches; each horn, from the scull to the tip, measures two feet eight inches, and is, at its base, one foot one inch and a half in circumference. One tooth weighs two ounces and a half. There is an imperfect cavity in the clay, in which the body of the animal is supposed to have lain, and on each side was a large piece of an oak tree, as black as ebony. Some part of the horns, near the tip, is completely petrified.

80. At the late great annual meeting of the Bath and West of England Society, the attendance of the nobility, gentry, and agriculturalists, was numerous and respectable. The show of live stock was inferior in point of number to some former years, which is to be partly attributed to the meeting being held a week earlier, of which many breeders might not have been aware. Dr. Parry's flock of Merino Ryeland sheep (not sent as candidates for any prize) was universally admired. There was exhibited a remarkably fine fat hog, brought by a Mr. Brooks; a bull of uncommon size and beauty, sent by Mr White Parsons; besides other valuable improved stock. The Bedfordian gold medal was awarded to John Billinsley, esq., for an Essay on the Cultiva-

evincing the author's great practical knowledge and literary abilities. Many other premiums and bounties were granted to superior desert and industry, in various departments of husbandry.

83. The decorations with which Bath has been lately ornamented, together with those it is shortly destined to receive, will render what has been long the most fashionable, now the most elegant and commodious of the places of public resort. The connecting avenues between the upper and lower town will, in a short time, cease to be inconvenient. Many of the old streets have been widened; and those more recently erected are spacious and handsome. These improvements, of the first importance both to permanent residents and to occasional visitants, have been in a great measure accomplished, and will be speedily perfected: and if in some respects they have not been so completely effected as might have been desired, yet upon the whole the alterations have been conducted with a spirit and celerity rarely to be paralleled. It were unpardonable not to notice, in terms of the highest applause, the elegant and tasteful decorations which the liberality and spirit of Mr. Stroud have lavished upon the upper assembly rooms; and at the same time to commend the ability and judgment displayed by the artists in the execution. The addition of a coach-road to the lower rooms will secure to this place of commodious amusement a continuance of public patronage; the magnificent entrance, which is just completed, forms only a part of the alterations which they are to undergo; and when the designs of the noble proprietor are carried into effect, they will rival every edifice of a similar nature in elegance and convenience.

84. The improvement of Bristol harbour is in a much more finished state than is generally imagined; several ribs of the iron bridge which fell are now re-placed; the excavations are nearly completed; and the late open weather has greatly contributed to the expediting the immense body of masonry, which it is found necessary to construct at the entrance dock. The utility of the concern is now almost universally allowed to be greater than the most sanguine endeavoured to make it appear. It is now ascertained, that it will be completed before the specified time, viz. 1st of May 1808, and it is hoped, that it will not be necessary to apply to parliament for more money; for should the remaining calls (viz. 15*l* per share) on the present subscription not be sufficient to complete the undertaking, the value of the surplus lands and stock on hand will make up the deficiency. Great credit is due to all persons employed; for perhaps there is not another instance, in a concern of such magnitude, where the expences have been so near the estimate.

85. *January* 1, 1807. The woollen manufactures in the north and west of England are not considerably injured by the recent events on the continent. The small clothiers in Yorkshire proceed with their usual activity. Those of Westmoreland are equally busy. In Somersetshire, Gloucestershire, and Wiltshire, the same unabated industry prevails. There is a temporary interruption of the orders from some parts of the continent; there may have been some deficiency in the remittances: but the home-consumption increases; the commercial distribution of British woollen goods in the East Indies is every year extended; the Anglo-Americans take off, every year, greater quantities than before; the trade of the Mediterranean, the Levant, and the Black Sea, opens still new marts for British woollens. As the population and culture of the British provinces in North America increase, their consumption, of woollens especially, grows more considerable: even the colony of Botany Bay begins to make itself worthy of notice as a seat of customers for the same commodity. The demand from the countries on the Baltic is, from time to time, rather enlarged

than narrowed. Add to this, the consideration of our supplies to Portugal, and of our becoming every day more exclusively masters of the trade to Spanish America. Our manufacturers, too, making woollen cloths for every diversity of country, climate, and manners, have thus learned to excel their rivals in all diversities of fabric for which Italy, Spain, France, &c., have ever been distinguished. There is not, then, the smallest reason to fear any immediate decline in the staple manufacture of England from the malicious endeavours of our enemies on the continent.

Late reports from wool-staplers and manufacturers enable us to state, that in the art of sorting their wools, the English are now little, if at all, inferior to the Spaniards. Travellers informs us, that at Segovia, and in other places in Spain, the operations of sorting the wools, washing them, and putting them up for transport and sale, are performed with the ingenuity, the care, and the skill of one of the nicest and most complex of the mechanic or chemical arts. Till of late there was nothing comparable to this in England: but the short wools are now sorted into ten or twelve different species; the long wools are managed with the same discrimination and care. The practice of plunging the living sheep in water to wash the fleeces, begins to be discontinued, or little regarded, because it does not cleanse them more than superficially.

Diligent inquiries by a committee of the last parliament have ascertained, that the ancient mode of the distribution of labour and property in the woollen manufactures, in both the north and the west of England, is the most favourable to morals, to industry, and to the general increase of the wealth of the country. In it, single manufacturing families are scattered over the several districts, in hamlets, villages, or even solitary dwellings. Each family, with the aid perhaps of some very few additional hands, work up materials which they have themselves purchased from the wool-staplers. Some bring their webs immediately from the loom to sale in the woollen halls, at the weekly markets. Others carry their undressed webs to the mills for dyeing and dressing, and have the cloth carried through every process requisite to fit it for use, before they offer it to sale. In the halls, on the market days, the merchants make their purchases, for immediate exportation to supply the exporters, or to serve the general country trade and the home consumption. This is the ancient system of the woollen manufactures of England. The committee of the last parliament wisely judged, that it would not be for the interest of the state that this system should be superseded by one, throwing the manufacture chiefly into the hands of great capitalists, and assembling the weavers, dyers, and dressers in vast manufacturing establishments.

The trade in Welsh flannels is thought to be, at this time, one of the most promising in which a mercantile man can hazard a speculation. It is, for London, principally in the hands of one or two houses, which have gained exceedingly by it, even within a very few years.

Such has been the general increase of the woollen trade of this country in the space of fourteen years, that the Easter returns to the justices at Pontefract of the quantity of the manufacture in the riding of Yorkshire in which it stands were, in 1792, 190,332 pieces of broad cloth, and 150,656 pieces of narrow cloth; but, in 1805, 300,237 pieces of broad, and 165,847 pieces of narrow.

Our information respecting the cotton manufactures is not flattering. The home consumption is immense; but the sales for the French, Dutch, and German markets are comparatively nothing. Considerable distress is felt in Lancashire, and at Glasgow and Paisley, in Scotland. The bankrupt lists evince how much is now suffered in this branch of business. But the prices of cotton wools are now low in the market;

and the manufacturer has in this a temporary advantage over the grower and the importer.

Hemp is just now scarce and dear. The manufacturers of sail-cloth and cordage imported last summer as little as possible of this material. They expected peace from the negociations, and knew that peace would reduce the prices and the demand for the articles which they made of hemp. Subsequent events have augmented the demand. The season for importation from the Baltic is over. It will be, for a time, difficult to supply the merchants' dock-yards: in those of government there are always in hand stores of this this commodity for three years

Upon suggestions originating with the earl of Dundonald, considerable improvements have been made in the manufacture of sail-cloth for the royal navy. The hemp and flax were formerly used in weaving canvas, without due previous cleansing. The necessity that the yarn should be steeped, bucked, and boiled, before it be used in the loom, has been clearly discerned. Government have required this condition to be observed in the preparation of all the canvas they contract for: it is done at an additional expence of 6s. per cwt. The canvas made of yarn thus freed from most of the extractive matter of the hemp and flax, is not liable to that decay which is named *mildew*. In 1804, twenty five manufacturers of canvas in England, and forty-three in Scotland, contracted to manufacture for government 147,280 bolts of canvas per annum, each bolt being from forty to forty-five yards. The royal navy was, before that time, supplied chiefly from the towns of Dundee, Aberdeen, Arbroath, Montrose, and Brechin, on the north-east coast of Scotland. The seats of the English manufacture of canvas are, Warrington, Kirkham, Lancaster, Whitehaven, Stockton, Whitby, and Hull. The attention of government to this object has tended, of course, to improve the article for the use also of the merchant ship-owners.

The iron and copper works of Great Britain continue flourishing. We import still less and less iron from the Baltic. The cast-iron manufactures of Carron, and other parts in this country, exceed all foreign competition. British iron is now employed as a material for anchors, a use for which its quality was three or four years since reckoned unfit. The East India company taking off every year large quantities of English copper, greatly contribute to the continued and profitable working of our copper mines. The manufacturers of Birmingham and Sheffield have, of late, had large orders for the South American market. Their manufactures still find their way, also, to Paris, and over the continent. It is however remarkable that, just now, such is the alledged inferiority of Sheffield cutlery to that of London, that in the shops any article of what is called town-made cutlery is sold for twice the price which would be asked for it, if it were avowedly from Sheffield. The manufacturers of Sheffield ought carefully to make their goods of every variety, indeed, of price and useful qualities; but always in the *real* equal to what they are in the *apparent* qualities.

Nothing is yet publicly known of the scheme of taxes for the supplies of 1807. It is said, that no very large loan will be wanted immediately.

By our possession of Malta, a brisk trade, yielding quick returns, is now carried on to the ports of Italy.—Malta is the emporium, the storehouse. From Malta we supply Leghorn, and other places under the power of the French. But the English goods are sold, even before they are landed, for ready money; and scarcely a pound's-worth of British property is at any moment hazarded where the French might seize it.

For the relief of the planters and their consignees, permission will, it is said, be this year given for the free use of raw sugars in the distilleries. Grain is not now high, but it does not fall in price. Our imports from Germany and the Baltic

are interrupted; we may, therefore, expect corn of all sorts rather to rise than decline in price as the season advances.

By the mildness of the season, and by the abundance of hay, clover, straw, and other dry forage, butcher's meat of all sorts continues at reasonable prices.

The exchange with Ireland is at twelve per cent, only 3½ per cent. against that country. Horses and cattle, to the value of about 16,000l. sterling, were last year exported from Ireland to Great Britain.

Stocks rather decline, the three per cents. vary between 59 and 60.

Coals are at reasonable prices. Cargoes are sold, in the river, at from 33s. to 49s. per chaldron; 12s. more per chaldron is charged by the retailers who deliver them for the use of families.

The average price of sugar, for the seven days ending December 10, was 1l. 16s. 9¾d.

The average prices of navigable canal and dock shares, for December, 1806, at the office of Mr. Scott, 25, New Bridge-street, London: The Trent and Mersey, or Grand Trunk Canal, 840l. to 880l. per share, dividing 40l. per share per annum. The Staffordshire and and Worcestershire Canal, 610l. per share, dividing 36l. per share net per annum. Grand Junction, 87l. per share, including a dividend of 1l. 10s. Ashton and Oldham, 100l. Worcester and Birmingham, 39l. per share, including all new calls paid. Lancaster, 18l. 10s. Scots Mines Company, 204l. to 206l. per cent., dividing 11l. per cent. net per annum. West India Dock Stock, 150l per cent., dividing 10l. per cent. net per annum. East India Dock, 124l., bearing interest at present of 5l. per cent. London Dock, 103l., dividing 5l. per cent. Globe Insurance, 102l., dividing 6l. per cent. Imperial Assurance, 12l. per cent. premium. West Middlesex Water Works, 4l. 10s. per share premium.

86. In a summary of the state of the weather, from Christmas-day, 1805, to the same day, 1806, near London, the average heat for each month of the last year, and of those in the preceding, may be stated thus:

	1805.		1806.
Jan.	34.333	-	41.276
Feb.	35.5	-	41.3
March	43.568	-	42.25
April	45.76	-	44.76
May	49.45	-	55.20
June	55.895	-	62
July	59.532	-	62
August	61.850	-	62
Sept.	58	-	59.70
Oct.	47	-	52.50
Nov.	39.333	-	50.00
Dec.	38.3	-	47.00
The year	47.368		51.665

In the former of these years, the average heat increased from month to month till August; but in the latter there was no increase of heat after June: for that and the two following months, the mean heat was 62°. The hottest days in the whole year were in June; and it appears to have been so much the case, as to equal the higher temperature that is usually experienced in the months of July and August. With regard to the whole year, the average of 1805 was rather lower than usual, and that of 1806 has been higher than that of common years. The mean height of the barometer for the year is equal to 29.815, which is not quite one-twentieth of an inch lower than it was for the preceding year; though the quantity of rain for 1806 has been equal to forty-two inches in depth, while that for 1805 was only twenty-five inches: this is a fresh proof of what in the course of our monthly reports we have frequently referred to, that the quantity of rain is in all cases in proportion to the high temperature of the atmosphere.

During the year there have been 141 days very brilliant; 119 in which there has been rain; on 17 there has fallen snow or hail; the remaining 88 days may be nearly equally divided into fair and cloudy

days: among the latter must be reckoned about 10 days in which fogs have prevailed the greater part of the day.

The state of the wind has been as follows: N. 16, S. 19, W. 84, E. 27, N.E. 48, S.E. 26, N.W. 76, S. 69.

The month of January was remarkable for storms and heavy rains, that occurred usually in the night. February was noted for its great variableness, both in the pressure and temperature of the atmosphere. March for its severe frosts and heavy snows. April for its north and north-easterly winds. May for its easterly winds, which were attended with much mischief to the gardens, particularly to the fruit trees. June was noted for the great heat of some of its days, though on others the northerly and easterly winds were severe; in some parts of the country there were storms, attended with thunder, lightning, and hail: this was a remarkably dry month. But the following month was uncommonly wet, and the heavy rains were accompanied with some tremendous storms. August was also marked by the storminess of many of its days; but on the whole it was favourable to the harvest. In September and October the weather was mild, and very suitable to the season and climate of the country. The months of November and December were remarkable for their high temperature, and for the great quantity of rain which fell. It may be observed, that there have been fewer fogs in these months than usual.

87. An expedition was fitted out last year, by the Spanish government, to convey a knowledge of the vaccine inoculation to the settlements and colonies of that nation. Of that branch of the expedition destined for Peru, it is ascertained that it was shipwrecked in one of the mouths of the River de la Magdalena; but having derived immediate succour from the natives, from the magistrates adjacent, and from the governor of Carthagena, the subdirector, the three members of the faculty who accompanied him, and the children, were saved, with the fluid in good preservation, which they extended in that port and its province with activity and success. Thence it was carried to the isthmus of Panama; and persons, properly provided with all necessaries, undertook the long and painful navigation of the River de la Magdalena; separating, when they reached the interior, to discharge their commission in the towns of Teneriffe, Mompox, Ocana, Socorro, San Gil y Medellin, in the valley of Cucuta, and in the cities of Pamplona, Giron, Tunja, Velez, and other places in the neighbourhood, until they met at Santa Fe: leaving every where suitable instructions for the members of the faculty, and, in the more considerable towns, regulations conformable to those rules which the director had prescribed for the preservation of the virus; which the viceroy affirms to have been communicated to 50,000 persons, without one unfavourable result. Towards the close of March, 1805, they prepared to continue their journey in separate tracks, for the purpose of extending themselves with greater facility and promptitude over the remaining districts of the vice-royalty, situated in the road of Popayan, Guenca, and Quito, as far as Lima. In the August following they reached Guayaquil.

The result of this expedition has been, not merely to spread the vaccine among all people, whether friends or enemies, among Moors, among Visayans, and among Chinese; but also to secure to posterity, in the dominions of his majesty, the perpetuity of so great a benefit, partly by means of the central committees that have been established, as well as by the discovery which Balmis made of an indigenous matter in the cows of the valley of Atlixco, near the city of Puebla de los Angeles; in the neighbourhood of that of Valladolid de Mechoacan, where the adjutant Antonio Gutierrez

found it; and in the district of Calabozo, in the province of Caraccas, where don Carlos de Pozo, physician of the residence, found it.

A multitude of observations, which will be published without delay, respecting the developement of the vaccine in various climes, and respecting its efficacy, not merely in preventing the natural small-pox, but in curing simultaneously other morbid affections of the human frame, will manifest how important to humanity will prove the consequences of an expedition, which has no parallel in history.

Though the object of this undertaking was limited to the communication of the vaccine in every quarter; to the instruction of professors, and to the establishment of regulations which might serve to render it perpetual, nevertheless, the director has omitted no means of rendering his services beneficial, at the same time, to agriculture and the sciences. He brings with him a considerable collection of exotic plants. He has caused to be drawn the most valuable subjects in natural history. He has amassed much important information; and, among other claims to the gratitude of his country, not the least consists in having imported a valuable assemblage of trees and vegetables, in a state to admit of propagation, and which, being cultivated in those parts of the peninsula that are most congenial to their growth, will render this expedition as memorable in the annals of agriculture, as in those of medicine and humanity. It is hoped that the subdirector and his coadjutors, appointed to carry these blessings to Peru, will shortly return by way of Buenos-Ayres, after having accomplished their journey through that vice-royalty, the vice-royalty of Lima, and the districts of Chili and Charcas; and that they will bring with them such collections and observations as they have been able to acquire, according to the instructions given by the director, without losing sight of the philanthropic commission which they received from his majesty, in the plenitude of his zeal for the welfare of the human race.

88. That a situation so convenient for mercantile and legal business, and for pleasure, as the neighbourhood of the Foundling Hospital, London, should so long have continued unbuilt on, when the most remote and inauspicious parts of the town have been closely covered over, has been a subject of great surprise. The means used by a party, by whom the charity was so long kept from those advantages its situation commanded, being overcome by its friends, the buildings were commenced in the year 1790 in Guilford-street, eastward of Lamb's Conduit-street, and from that time have been unceasingly prosecuted to the present year, 1807.

Very soon after the commencement of these buildings, the proprietor of the Doughty estate adjoining eastward, and the late duke of Bedford on the west, united in carrying into effect those plans which have now revealed themselves to the public; but it will long be a subject of deep regret, that any part of the short-sighted policy which retarded the commencement of these plans should have again evinced itself, and an injunction obtained from the court of chancery to prevent the making, under any modifications whatever, a communication between Queen-square and Guilford-street; the inlets to which cannot now, without the aid of parliament, be materially amended for many centuries; and the square must consequently be accessible only by the present miserable avenues from the south and west. It is also unfortunate, that, from the same source of opposition, the continuation of Queen-square of an equal width, was not effected to the northern extremity of the Foundling estate, which had been projected.

It is much to be regretted, that the plan of Mr. Cockerell the architect was not adopted, by which the hospital was to form the centre of one large square, extending the

whole size of Brunswick-square, a corresponding space eastward, and to Guilford-street southward; the useless dwarf buildings round the hospital being removed to make way for a noble area, designed to have been dressed, planted, and surrounded by iron palisadoes, which would then have formed by far the grandest square in London, and a superb ornament to the metropolis.

Perhaps also it may be considered unfortunate, that the original intentions of the late duke of Bedford were not carried into effect. By these it was proposed to rebuild the mansion-house on a magnificent scale, removed further from Bloomsbury-square, and to radiate two lines of capital houses northward from thence to the new road, on each side of a lawn of about thirty acres inclosed and planted, having sunk cross roads to communicate with Gower-street. Under this impression, the new houses on the east side of Russell-square, and the detached houses northward, were built. But the subsequent determination of the duke to reside nearer the court produced the present arrangement; by which so great an increase has already been made to his grace's rental, and which will so prodigiously enlarge the income of his successors.

In 1800, Bedford-house was pulled down, and in 1803, all the new houses between Russell-square and Bloomsbury-square, on the site of the old house and gardens, were erected; since 1801, all the new buildings, exclusive of those already mentioned, on what was formerly known as the Long-fields, have been erected. Russell-square is considerably larger than any other in London, Lincoln's-Inn-fields excepted. Its dimensions nearly (for it is not perfectly at right angles, in consequence of the alteration of the plan already mentioned) are six hundred and seventy-eight feet on each side. Bolton-house, occupied in 1803 by the late earl Rosslyn, has recently been divided into two, and its court-yard covered by three excellent houses, which completes the eastern side of the square.

Much pains have been used, and expence incurred, in laying out and planting the area of this square; which, when the trees and plants shall have arrived at a greater degree of maturity, will render it one of the most agreeable in London. On the south side, immediately opposite Bedford-place, a pedestrian statue in bronze of the late excellent duke Francis, is to be set up by Mr. Westmacot, by public subscription, and will much add to the beauty of this place.

To the northward, Tavistock-square is commenced, and by an early attention to the inclosing and planting its area before the erection of the habitations, it has become at once pleasant, healthy, and desirable.

To the eastward of the Foundling-hospital a square is begun, of the same dimensions as Brunswick-square. Northward of the hospital garden is the estate of Mr. Harrison, where a respectable neighbourhood is rapidly forming; and nearly adjoining, is a large field belonging to the Skinner's company, for which extensive building-plans have been projected, but, through some extraordinary inadvertence, no agreement has been effected, to insure respectable accesses, either by the south, east, or western sides.

The estate formerly belonging to Mr. Mortimer, at the north end of Gower-street, after many years' litigation, has now become the property of sir William Paxton, who proposes to put up extensive and respectable buildings on it, and to continue Gower-street to the road.

Northward of Tavistock-square, an area of about twenty acres is proposed to be surrounded with buildings; the centre to be occupied and dressed as nursery-grounds; the Paddington road running between them. Directly northward, from the centre of this large area, a wide grand road is to lead to the Hampstead road at Camden Town; the sides to be planted with double rows of trees, and the houses to be con-

pled or detached, allowing abundant space to each for respectable inhabitants.

It is worthy of remark, that a line drawn from the obelisk in St. George's fields to the Hampstead road, will directly pass to the eastward of Somerset-place in the Strand, by Bloomsbury, through Russell and Tavistock-squares, and the above grand avenue; and, at a comparatively small expence, form a noble street of communication of more than three miles in extent; dividing the metropolis north and south, almost centrally.

The new bridge (so injudiciously intended to be built across the Thames opposite Beaufort-buildings), without the possibility of any considerable northern outlet, should undoubtedly be placed in this line; the eastern wing of Somerset-place completed, and a correspondent range of buildings at the back of Surry-street erected, with a spacious street between, at least eighty feet wide, forming the access from the Strand, and leading direct to the proposed grand street.

The road from the bridge to the obelisk would be through property that must be most materially increased in value by the operation; and if the prices which building-ground has produced to the corporation of London, at their improvements by Snow-hill and Temple-bar be a criterion, the making so grand a street as is here projected, would prove an undertaking of very considerable profit to any individuals who, sanctioned by the legislature, might undertake it; the greater proportion of the space between that part of Holborn and the Strand being at present chiefly occupied as sheds or tenements of the most miserable quality. The new street would allow of houses of the most respectable class, public or private, and consequently the ground must be proportionably valuable. It should also be at least eighty feet wide; ninety or one hundred would be better; and its arrangement of houses, elevation, character, &c., ought all to be new and striking. The dwellings should afford sufficient space for trade, but not to overwhelm the tradesmen with rent; and private individuals, or professional men, should therein find accommodations.

The corporation of the city of London, on its estate between Gower-street and Tottenham Court-road, is causing a street, with a crescent at each end, to be erected, and a long range of shops next the road; the whole much improving that approach to the Bedford estate.

Of the importance of the buildings on the Bedford and Foundling estates to the country and the proprietors, some judgment may be formed by the following estimates, which are very nearly correct: the duties already paid to government for the articles consumed in the buildings, amount to 84,500l. The house and window duties per annum 40,700l. The war tax on property, per annum, 14,800l. The new river company gain by the increased service, per annum, 3,450l. The present value of the buildings erected is 1,328,000l. The annual value, 125,710l. And the present annual value of the ground-rents, 18,839l.

About one half of the buildings are completed on the Bedford estate, and two thirds on the Foundling estate. If, therefore, those proportions be added to the sums already estimated, some idea may be formed of the reversionary value to the proprietors; and if to these be added the duties and taxes on the other estates before mentioned south of the new road, the permanent taxes to the state cannot be less (according to their present ratio) than, for houses and windows per annum, 100,000l.; for duties and customs on the building articles, 200,000l.; for the war-tax on property per annum, 40,000l.; and in total of the capital thus to be created not less than 3,500,000l.; exclusive of all consideration of the advantages derived to the revenue, manufactures, and commerce, by the fit-

ting up and furnishing so vast a neighbourhood.

89. The whole of those great buildings destroyed by the dreadful conflagration of September, 1802, on the quay of St. George's dock at Liverpool, have risen from their ashes with improved magnificence, and greatly augmented extent. This task has been completed in less than four years; and of all the various proofs which have been held forth to the world, of the spirit and resources of the town of Liverpool, we consider this as one of the most decisive and unequivocal.

At the time of the conflagration, the stone basement of the whole of that large and beautiful range which fronts to George's dock, had been erected, but the super-incumbent warehouses had only been built on that division which reaches from the bottom of Brunswick-street to Water-street, and on about one-fourth part of the other division. The whole of this, except the small part last mentioned, was entirely demolished. But the entire range from Water-street to Brunswick-street, and from Brunswick-street to Moore-street, is now completed, and, for elegance, convenience, and situation, there certainly is not such another range of warehouses in Europe.

The enormous piles which have been lately erected on the West India and Wapping docks, in London, are indeed vastly superior in size and extent, but in beauty and convenience they are not to be compared. The new row on the Goree is, including the two divisions, in length nearly two hundred yards, of a proportionable depth, and in height six stories, exclusive of the cellars and garrets. It is built with exact uniformity, on a rustic stone basement, which incloses to the front a fine flagged arcade of thirteen feet in width, very convenient as a promenade for the merchants in wet weather. This piazza is formed by alternate great and small arches, the former ten feet nine inches in breadth, the latter five feet eight inches. This intermixture has a pleasing appearance to the eye, and detracts much from the heaviness of that species of architecture. The whole pile has the convenience of being open to a wide pavement both in front and rear; and the front rooms of the lower story are used as counting-houses by the merchants who occupy the warehouses. The noble range of buildings belonging to Mr. France, Mr. Dawson, and others, which stood behind the pile just described, was also entirely consumed, and the whole of this ground, except a few yards, has likewise been completely rebuilt. The new buildings, it is true, do not reach the enormous elevation which in the old was so much admired, but this deficiency may justly be reckoned an improvement. The extreme height of the former warehouses was not only beyond the bounds of just proportion, but occasioned a variety of inconveniences; and particularly rendered the danger and mischiefs of a fire much more alarming and imminent. On the whole, these buildings may justly be considered as a most extraordinary monument of the opulence and enterprize of the town of Liverpool.

90. The Copleyan medal has been adjudged by the Royal Philosophical Society of London to T. A. Knight, Esq., for his numerous discoveries in vegetable physiology. Sir Joseph Banks, upon presenting Mr. Knight with the reward of his labours and high merit, pronounced a most able discourse on the pursuits of this gentleman. He noticed his researches and observations on the albuminous juices of plants, in its *ascent* elaborating the buds and leaves, and in its *descent* forming wood; and of his discovery of the natural decay of apple-trees, and of the grafts, which decline and become unproductive at the same time with the parent stock. The learned president referred next to the experiments, which went to prove that all vegetables radiate by gravitation only, and not by any instinctive energy; that new and superior

species of apples may be produced from seed; and that impregnating the pollen was found to be an advantageous substitute for grafting. He then alluded to the new and very valuable species of pears produced by Mr. Knight, and to a new species of vines, which bear grapes not only superior in flavour to others hitherto known, but which are capable of arriving at perfection, even in the most adverse seasons, in our climate. For these, and other discoveries, ably enumerated by the learned president, the Copleyan medal was adjudged to Mr. Knight, whose successful labours in this branch of natural history have probably surpassed those of any other philosopher in developing the economy of vegetation, and the laws of vegetable life.

91. The general bill of all the christenings and burials, in London, from December 17, 1805, to December 16, 1806, is as follows:

Christened in the 97 parishes within the walls, 1121.—Buried, 1152.

Christened in the 17 parishes without the walls, 4763.—Burials, 3673.

Christened in the out parishes in Middlesex and Surry, 9734.—Buried, 7842.

Christened in the 10 parishes in the city and liberties of Westminster, 4762.—Buried, 5271.

Christened, males, 10,452.—Females, 9928. In all, 20,380.

Buried, Males, 9215.—Females, 8723.—In all, 17,938.—Whereof have died.

Under two years of age	5405
Between two and five	2029
Five and ten	822
Ten and twenty	635
Twenty and thirty	1329
Thirty and forty	1782
Forty and fifty	1793
Fifty and sixty	1503
Sixty and seventy	1265
Seventy and eighty	859
Eighty and ninety	414
Ninety and a hundred	99
A hundred	2
A hundred and four	1

Increase in the burials this year, 363.

92. A new exchequer office is to be built shortly. It is intended to restore Henry the seventh's chapel with the new cement, a specimen of which may be seen on the top of the east end of the chapel, facing the house of lords.

93. Dr. Robertson, Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford, has lately presented to the Royal Society a paper on "The Precession of the Equinoxes;" in which he has suggested some new methods of ascertaining with greater accuracy than has hitherto been done, the calculations of compound rotatory motion.

94. Mr. Smith exhibited to the Society of Antiquarians, a silver ring about an inch in diameter, with twelve points, resembling the teeth of a wheel in clock-work, in one of which was a rowel, which projected a little more than the others. Mr. S. imagines that this ring was used as a chaplet in the days of the catholic religion in this country; and that each point was to indicate a prayer, as a help to the memory, or to those who could not read.

95. The Literary and Philosophical Society at Newcastle upon Tyne continues to flourish: many valuable papers were communicated and read to it in the course of the last year. Much of the prosperity of this society must be referred to the labours and zeal of the Rev. William Turner.

96. Mr. Cumberland has lately given to the public a description of a very simple and useful scale for dividing the vanishing lines in perspective. It is thus formed: take a sheet of paper, and having made a horizontal line, fix on a point, as a centre, called the point of sight; this point is crossed with diagonal lines in various directions; and thus an instrument is prepared, that will be a sure guide to an inexperienced eye, in taking the perspective lines of all objects placed at right angles,

such as streets, buildings, churches, apartments, by merely placing it under the leaf to be drawn on. To render the instrument more complete, a plate of glass should be added, of the same size as the leaf of the drawing-book, on which the dark lines should be drawn.

97. The secret of the invisible girl has lately been supposed to have been discovered, from which it should seem, that the whole deception consists in a very trifling addition to the mechanism of the *speaking bust;* which consists of a tube from the mouth of the bust, leading to a confederate in an adjoining room, and another tube to the same place, ending in the ear of the figure. By the last of these, a sound whispered to the ear of the bust is immediately carried to the confederate, who instantly returns an answer by the other tube ending in the mouth of the figure, who seems to utter it: and the invisible girl only differs in this circumstance, that an artificial echo is produced by means of certain trumpets; and thus the sound does not proceed in its original direction, but is completely reversed.

98. The London Medical Society propose to confer the Fothergillian gold medal on the authors of the best essays on the following subjects:

Question for the year 1807.—The best account of the epidemic fevers which have prevailed at several times in North America, Spain, and Gibraltar, since the year 1793, and whether they are the same or different diseases.

For the year 1808.—What are the best methods of preventing and of curing epidemic dysentery?

For the year 1809.—What are the criteria by which epidemic disorders that are not infectious may be distinguished from those that are?

For the year 1810.—What are the qualities in the atmosphere most to be desired under the various circumstances of pulmonary consumption?

99. It has been lately recommended that, excepting the lancet employed in vaccination, all the instruments of surgery ought to be dipped into oil at the moment when they are going to be used; by which method the pain of the subject operated upon will always be diminished. It is recommended to make all instruments of a blood-heat a little before the operation.

100. Mr. Hermbstadt, of Berlin, gives the following as a cheap method of obtaining the sugar of the beet-root: Let the beet-roots be pounded in a mortar, and then subjected to the press; the juice is next to be clarified with lime, like that of the sugar-cane, and then by evaporation bring it to the consistence of syrup. From 100 lbs. of raw sugar thus obtained, 80 lbs. may be had, by the first refining, of well-chrystalized sugar, inferior neither in quality nor whiteness to that of the West-Indies. Two days are sufficient to complete the operation.

101. A new branch of science, entitled *Mnemonica*, is now much studied in Germany. It was originally taught and practised in Egypt and Greece, and was an invention attributed to Simonides. The modern restorer of this art is M. Aretin, who exacts from his pupils a promise not to write down his lectures. According to a book, said to have been written by a child of twelve years of age, and mentioned in the catalogue for the last September fair at Leipsic, *mnemonica* is a true science, and may be so tauthg as to give a memory to individuals of every age.

102. Leschevin, chief commissary for gunpowder and saltpetre at Dijon, France, has suggested a method of averting showers of hail, and dissipating storms. The memoir in which he has related the discovery, as he conceives, is long, but we shall be able to present the English reader with the results in few words: 1. He would excite in the air strong commotions capable of shaking the particles of water adhering to it, so as to produce abundant rain: this is to be done by the sound of great

bells, the noise of guns or drums, by the detonation of the fulminating powder, and by the explosion, in the middle of the clouds, of rockets directed towards the place where the clouds are thickest. 2. He would establish energetic conductors between the clouds and the earth, either by fires lighted from distance to distance, and kept burning by supplies of dry substances, or by the disengagement of humid vapours, or the combustion of resinous matters. 3. He would draw off the electric fluid, which is in superabundance in the clouds, by a multiplicity of thunder-rods: he would establish these conductors on those sides from which the winds chiefly come, and these are to be placed on elevated places, high trees, &c. We are informed, that the practice recommended in this memoir, is made use of in many parts of France with the greatest success.

103. Dr. Carradori, in opposition to the experiments and conclusions of Messrs. Humboldt and Gay Lusac, affirms that ebullition is not sufficient to free water from all the oxygen that it contains; and that nothing but congelation, and the respiration of fishes, can entirely clear water of its oxygen. These, he says, are the only means that complete the separation from water of all the oxygen it contains interposed between its globules. Fishes he conceives to be the endiometers of water; and one of these, shut up in a body of water, is capable of separating, by means of its respiration, in several hours, all the oxygen from the water, and to exhaust it entirely from this principle. By several ingenious, but cruel, experiments on fish, this philosopher proves that melted snow, as well as water that has been congealed, is deprived of all its oxygen.

104. Leroi, who has made many successful experiments in agriculture, advises persons by no means to procure grain for sowing from a soil north of their own land, but from a country south of it; because he says it is a general rule, that the product of seed improves in going from south to north, and that it decreases in virtue in going from north to south. He recommends boiled carrots, as an excellent and cheap food for the fattening of pigs; and he adds, that by steeping raw carrots in water to deprive them of their acrid principle, then by boiling them, and causing them to ferment, an ardent spirit may be drawn from them, more wholesome than brandy distilled from rye.

105. M. L. Abbe Melograni has invented a new blow-pipe: it consists of two hollow glass globes, of a size proportioned to the effects required, which are united by two metallic tubes placed one against the other; each of these pipes has a valve attached at each of its extremities: a third pipe placed horizontally, and at right angles with the two first, is hermetically fixed to the pipes which unite the two globes. This horizontal pipe, besides serving to direct the air upon the flame of the lamp, likewise forms a support and axis on which the globes turn. When the lower globe, which is half filled with water, has, in changing its position, become uppermost, the water will run out into the other, and will form, by the pressure, a current of air in the pipe, which, being stopped by the valve at the extremity of the same pipe, will be forced to pass through the horizontal pipe; the mouth of which being directed towards the flame, will produce the effect desired: when the water has descended into the lower ball, the position must be changed, and the action of the machine will recommence.

106. Theodore Pierre Bertin has invented a new syphon, capable of raising water thirty feet high without human help. This instrument is, we are told, applicable to different purposes: as a syphon, it may be used to raise water above its source, in any situation; as a pump, it may serve as a pneumatic chemical apparatus, by the help of which may be made acidulated waters.

The effects of this pump are in proportion to the superior length of the descending limb over that of the ascending one: it is therefore convenient for conveying perfumed air, such as that of an orangerie, for example, into rooms: it may also be rendered useful for mild suctions, and might be employed in surgical operations where the sucking-pump is employed.

107. Two species of bears at present unknown have been found by M. Cuvier, buried with tygers, hyenas, and other carnivorous animals, in a great number of caverns, in the mountains of Hungary and Germany.

108. M. Seguin, from the remarkable quantity of albumen found in vegetable juices which ferment without yeast, and afford a vinous liquor, has been led to enquire whether the albumen might not be of essential consequence to this intestine motion. Having deprived these juices of albumen, they became incapable of fermenting; and then having supplied this principle, such as white of egg to saccharine matter, the fermentation took place, and a matter similar to yeast was deposited, which appeared to be only the albumen, which was so altered as to be nearly insoluble, without having lost its fermentescible action. Hence he concludes, that albumen, whether animal or vegetable, is the true ferment.

109. M. Oliver has lately presented to the National Institute an account of the topography of Persia; in which he has described the chains of mountains, the courses of streams, and the productions peculiar to climate. The great and prevailing drought is the cause why not more than a twentieth part of that vast empire is cultivated. Entire provinces have not a single tree which is not planted and watered by the hands of man. This evil is constantly increasing, by the destruction of these canals by which the water from the mountains was formerly conducted to the lands.

110. M. Desmarets, from an examination of some ancient garments, found in a tomb of the abbey of St. Germain, has determined that most of the processes of weaving, at present used, were known in the tenth century; and he has thrown some new light on the articles of Pliny respecting the ancient fabrics.

111. Seguin has found, from a variety of experiments, that coffee consists of albumen, oil, a bitter principle, and a green matter, which is a combination of this last and albumen.

112. Lacepede, by examining what is at present known of Africa; by comparing the volume of the rivers which arrive at the sea, with the extent of the regions upon which the rains of the torrid zone fall, and the quantity of evaporation to be observed; and, lastly, assisting the judgment by the number and direction of the chains of inland mountains, as described by travellers, has offered some conjectures respecting the physical disposition of the countries still unknown in the centre of that quarter of the globe, and more particularly the seas and great lakes which he thinks must there exist. He has, in a memoir presented to the National Institute, indicated the courses which appear to him to be proper for the most speedily exploring those countries which still remain to be discovered.

113. Count Rumford (now at Paris) has ascertained that light loses little of its intensity by passing through ground glass; he recommends, therefore, the perference of ground glasses for Argand's lamp, as a means of preventing the glare, so offensive to the eye.

114. Bouillon la Grange has examined with great attention *tannin*, the character of which is to form an insoluble compound with gelatine; and he has found that it has an affinity for the alkalies, the earths, and the metallic oxides, and the faculty of becoming converted into gallic acid by absorbing oxygen.

115. Bucholz has, from various experiments upon the seeds of lycopodium, found, 1, that they contain

a sixteenth part of a fat oil of brownish yellow, and soluble in alcohol; 2, a portion of real sugar; 3, a viscous extract of a brownish yellow, and an insipid taste; 4, the residue, after being treated with alcohol and water, may be regarded as a peculiar product of the vegetable kingdom; 5, the yellowish aspect of the seed in this latter state, indicates the union of a species of pigment with the first principle of the seed, or, at least, a very intimate union of the constituent parts of this seed; 6, the oily part which enters into the composition of this seed occasions its lively combustion, and its constant separation from water.

116. Freylino has extracted a large quantity of saccharine matter from the black mulberry tree, which may be obtained in a state of syrup or concrete sugar. The syrup may be had by extracting the juice, clarifying it with the whites of eggs, and afterwards evaporating it to a proper consistence.

117. M. Gogo has obtained from the common hazel-nut a sweet and agreeable oil.

118. M. de Beauvois has begun to publish an account of the insects which he collected on the African and American coasts.

119. Dr. Gautieri, physician at Angogna, in the Milanese, has published a treatise on the animal gelatine as a cure for intermittents. The National Institute have delegated a committee to inquire into the effects of this new remedy, and they found that the common glue of the joiners cured intermittents. A great many Italian physicians have tried this remedy, and found it safe and effectual. They tried it in the *febris tertiana duplicata*, some also in the quartan, which had not yielded to bark, &c., likewise in the quotidian remittents. Several patients were restored even by the simple jelly of beef. They observed that the sthenical intemittents cured by the glue went over into a *febris continua*, and even in asthenical ones; but this continuity lasted at most only one or two days. The glue is to be given a short time before the paroxysm. Its principal effect consists in taking away the atony of the stomach and the skin. When that is done, it is advisable to give some doses at several other hours of the day. It ought not to be diluted too much with water. When the solution, made from eleven or twelve drachms of glue in two ounces of water, coagulates and thickens again, it may easily be made potable, by putting the glass on hot ashes*. Others gave the doses every quarter, or every half hour, with equally good effect. The patient should not drink much after having taken the medicine, and especially no acid beverage. Two or three hours after he may drink or eat. The glue operates at the same time as a sudorific. The patient ought to remain two days in bed after the fever has ceased, and to avoid the air (especially if it be cold and moist) for four or five days. At Berlin these cures have been reiterated in the *Charité*, and found of indubitable effect.

120. De Sacco, at Milan, has made experiments, which prove that the lymph of the malanders, or rather the grease of horses (Italian, *giardoni*, German, *mauke*, French, *eaux aux jambes*), has the same effect, when inoculated, as the vaccine virus. These experiments have been repeated several times at Berlin, by Dr. and counsellor Bremer, who got re-produced lymph from Vienna. He transplanted the lymph by four generations, and it remained effective. All necessary means have been employed to ascertain that true cow-pock was produced. Every child inoculated with this matter was re-inoculated with the natural small-pox, but did not take it.

121. Many foreign physicians, on receiving the various discussions in

* Gluten, prepared in a Papinian digestor, from fresh bones, beef, &c., would produce the same effect, be equally cheap, and without the nauseous taste of the joiner's glue.

America, respecting the yellow fever, consider the following facts, in its history, as all that have been fully and satisfactorily made out:

1st. That the yellow fever has appeared only in such towns as are populous*.

2d. That the disorder begins on flat grounds near docks.

3d. That the upper and back parts of the towns, not thickly settled, are seldom affected.

4th. That the disorder begins after the hot weather commences, and continues as long as the weather remains hot.

5th. That the disease is more mortal in dry seasons accompanied with heat.

6th. That in wet, cool summers the disease has scarcely apppeared.

7th. That after a long drought and great heat, and when the disease had become more general and more mortal than usual, a considerable rain (and the air temperate), or a frost, restores health.

8th. That there is no instance where a patient labouring under the disease and carried into the country communicated infection.

9th. That a person in perfect health going from the country into the parts of a town afflicted with the disease, may contract the complaint, and feel its effects, immediately, or after he has returned to the country, though he has not seen a person in the fever.

122. The number of capital pictures now in England evades all calculation; to enter into the causes that have contributed to this is not necessary, but it has long been a subject of regret, both to foreigners and natives who are fond of the fine arts, that these pictures have been so generally scattered over the face of the island, at the different mansions of our nobility, or dispersed through the metropolis, in many cases, in small collections, that they were not more easily accessible. The latter of these evils, the generous conduct of the gentlemen who began the plan of the British Institution in Pall-Mall, for exhibiting old pictures, &c., promises to remove; and the noble, and we must add patriotic example of the marquis of Stafford, is an admirable beginning for the removal of the other. We have been told, and hope it is well founded, that lord Grosvenor intends to add a gallery, similar to that of the marquis, to the mansion his lordship purchased from the duke of Gloucester. To this he will remove the collection which was in the possession of the late earl, the pictures which were at his own house in Westminster, before he attained his present title, and, above all, the very admirable and valuable collection which he lately purchased from Mr. W. E. Agar, of which, when we have room, we mean to give some account.

123. A grand suite of apartments, upon a magnificent scale, has been recently erected in Argyle-street, London, for the laudable purpose of rendering the amusements of the rich and great conducive to the interest of the fine arts, and the professors of science and taste. At these rooms, an assembly of persons of rank and distinction is to be formed, for a certain number of nights in the season, with performers calculated to gratify a tasteful audience. A set of apartments, fitted up for the harmonic dinners of their royal highnesses the prince of Wales and the duke of Cambridge, are to be opened, daily, for the use of a Belles Lettres Society, which is about to be established at this place, composed of gentlemen who patronize the fine arts. In other sets of rooms, all the daily papers, magazines, and interesting publications, will be found, for the use of the ladies and gentlemen, subscribers to the institution. This plan, though adopted at all the principal places on the continent, is entirely new to this metropolis, and is somewhat similar to the subscription-rooms at the watering-places; except, indeed, that in the present establishment, the most scrupulous

* That is, as we suppose to be meant, thickly or closely built.

care will be adopted to preserve a very select company, and such artists as are desirous of exposing to critical examination superior works of skill, on application to the committee, will have their wishes gratified, as genius and talent, of every description, will here find encouragement and support. This establishment will differ essentially from any other in London, and embraces a greater variety of objects of public utility and amusement. Great judgment has been displayed in the arrangement of the building; the ceilings and walls of which are emblematically painted and decorated, in a very superior manner. A handsome orchestra, which occupies one end of the large room, is so contrived, as to be convertible, in two hours, into an elegant little stage, sufficiently capacious for all the purposes of private theatricals. At the other end, boxes are constructed for the use of his royal highness the prince of Wales, their royal highnesses the dukes of York, Sussex, and Cambridge, who are subscribers and patrons to the subscription parties. This institution, which promises to unite refinement with amusement, and utility with taste, is already supported by a numerous list of the first rank and character in the kingdom.

124. Mr. Everard Home lately laid before the Royal Society of London, observations on the camel's stomach respecting the water it contains, and the reservoirs in which hat fluid is enclosed.

The camel, the subject of these observations, was a female brought from Arabia; it was 28 years old, and said to have been 20 years in England. The animal was worn out, and in a state of great debility, before it came into the hands of the college of surgeons, and they put an end to its miseries by means of a narrow double-edged poniard passed in between the skull and first vertebræ of the neck: in this way the medulla oblongata was divided, and the animal instantaneously deprived of sensibility.

In the common mode of *pithing* an animal, the medulla spinalis only is cut through, and the head remains alive, which renders it the most cruel mode of killing an animal that could be invented.

The stomachs of this animal were the first things examined, and, on measuring the capacities of these different reservoirs in the dead body, the anterior cells of the first stomach were found capable of containing one quart of water, when poured into them. The posterior cells, three quarts. One of the largest cells held two ounces and a half, and the second stomach four quarts. This is much short of what those cavities can contain in the living animal, since there are large muscles covering the bottom of the cellular structure, to force out the water which must have been contracted immediately after death, and by that means had diminished the cavities. The camel, when it drinks, conducts the water in a pure state into the second stomach; part of it is retained there, and the rest runs over into the cellular structure of the first, acquiring a yellow colour. That the second stomach in the camel contained water, had been generally asserted; but by what means the water was kept separate from the food had never been explained, nor had any other part been discovered by which the common offices of a second stomach could be performed. To this Mr. Hunter did not give credit, but considered the second stomach of the camel to correspond in its use with that of other ruminants. This difference of opinion led Mr. Home to examine accurately the camel's stomach, and also the stomachs of those ruminants which have horns, in order to determine the peculiar offices belonging to their different cavities.

The best mode of conducting this enquiry is to describe the different stomachs of the bullock, and then those of the camel, and afterwards to point out the peculiarities by which this animal is enabled to go a longer time without drink than others

and thereby fitted to live in those sandy deserts of which it is the natural inhabitant.

When the first stomach of the bullock is laid open, and the solid contents removed, the cavity appears to be made up of two large compartments, separated from each other by two transverse bands of considerable thickness, and the second stomach forms a pouch or lesser compartment, on the anterior part of it, somewhat to the right of the œsophagus, so that the first and second stomach are both included in one general cavity, and lined with a cuticle. The œsophagus appears to open into the first stomach, but on each side of its termination there is a muscular ridge, projecting from the coats of the first stomach, so as to form a channel into the second. These muscular bands are continued on to the orifice of the third stomach, in which they are lost. The food can readily pass from the œsophagus, either into the general cavity of the first stomach or into the second, which last is peculiarly fitted by its situation, and the muscular power of its coats, both to throw up its contents into the mouth, and to receive a supply from the general cavity of the first stomach, at the will of the animal. The second stomach contains the same food as the first, only more moist; it must therefore be considered as a shelf from which the food may be regurgitated along the canal, continued from the œsophagus. There is indeed no other mode by which this can be effected, since it is hardly possible for the animal to separate small portions from the surface of the mass of dry food in the first stomach, and force it up into the mouth. It is also ascertained that water is received into the second stomach while the animal is drinking, and is thus enabled to have its contents always in a proper state of moisture to admit of its being readily thrown up into the mouth for rumination, which seems to be the true office of this stomach, and not to receive the food after that process has been gone through.

When the food is swallowed the second time, the orifice of the third stomach is brought forward by the muscular bands which terminate in it, so as to oppose the end of the œsophagus, and receive the morsel without the smallest risk of its dropping into the second stomach. The third stomach of the bullock is a cavity, in the form of a crescent, containing 24 septa, 7 inches broad; about 23, 4 inches broad; and about 48 of 1½ inch at their broadest part. These are thus arranged: one broad one, with one of the narrowest next it; then a narrow one, with one of the narrowest next it; then a broad one and so on. The septa are thin membranes, and have their origin in the orifice leading from the œsophagus, so that whatever passes into the cavity must fall between these septa, and describe three-fourths of a circle, before it can arrive at the orifice leading to the true stomach, which is so near the other, that the distance between them does not exceed three inches: and therefore the direct line from the termination of the œsophagus to the orifice of the fourth stomach is only of that length. While the young calf is fed on milk, that liquor, which does not require to be ruminated, is conveyed directly to the fourth stomach, not passing through the plicæ of the third; and afterwards the solid food is directed into that cavity, by the plicæ separated from each other. The third stomach opens into the fourth by a projecting valvular orifice, and the cuticular lining terminates exactly on the edge of this valve, covering only that half of it which belongs to the third. The fourth or true digesting stomach is about 2 feet 9 inches long; its internal membrane has 18 plicæ, beginning at its orifice, and continued down, increasing to a great degree its internal surface: beyond these the internal membrane is thrown into rugæ which follow a very serpentine direction, and close

to the pylorus there is a glandular projection, one end of which is opposed to the orifice, and closes it up, when in a collapsed state.

The camel's stomach anteriorly forms one large bag, but when laid open is forced to be divided into two compartments on its posterior part, by a strong ridge which passes down from the right side of the orifice of the œsophagus in a longitudinal direction. On the left side of the termination of the œsophagus, a broad muscular band has its origin, from the coats of the first stomach, and passes down in the form of a solid parallel to the great ridge, till it enters the orifice of the second stomach. This band on one side, and the great ridge on the other, form a canal, which leads from the œsophagus down to the cellular structure in the lower part of the first stomach. The orifice of the second stomach, when this muscle is not in action, is nearly shut, and at right angles to the side of the first. Its cavity is a pendulous bag with rows of cells, above which, between them and the muscle which passes along the upper part of the stomach, is a smooth surface extending from the orifice this stomach to the termination of the third. Hence it is evident that the second stomach neither receives the solid food in the first instance as the bullock, nor does it afterwards pass into its cavity or cellular structure. The food first passes into the general cavity of the first stomach, and that portion of it which lies in the recess immediately below the entrance of the œsophagus under which the cells are situated, is kept moist, and is readily returned into the mouth, so that the cellular portion of the first stomach in the camel performs the same office as the second in the ruminants with horns. While the camel is drinking, the action of the muscular band opens the orifice of the second stomach, at the same time that it directs the water into it; and when the cells of that cavity are full, the rest runs off into the cellular structure of the first stomach immediately below, and afterwards into the general cavity: it seems that camels, when accustomed to go long journeys, in which they are kept without water, acquire the power of dilating the cells, so as to make make them contain a more than ordinary quantity as a supply for their journey. When the cud has been chewed, it has to pass along the upper part of the second stomach before it can reach the third; which is thus managed: at the time that the cud is to pass from the mouth, the muscular band contracts with so much force, that it not only opens the orifice of the second stomach, but acting on the mouth of the third, brings it forwards into the second, by which means the muscular ridges that separate the rows of cells are brought close together, so as to exclude these cavities from the canal, through which the end passes. It is this beautiful and very curious mechanism which forms the peculiar character of the stomach of the camel, dromedary, and lama, fitting them to live in the sandy deserts, where the supplies of water are so precarious.

In the bullock are three stomachs for the preparation of food, and one for digestion. In the camel there is one stomach fitted to answer the purposes of two of the bullock; a second is employed as a reservoir for water, having nothing to do with the preparation of the food; a third is so small and simple in its structure, that it is not easy to ascertain its particular office.

The following are the gradations of animals with ruminating stomachs: the ruminants with horns, as the ox, sheep, &c., have two preparatory stomachs for food previously to rumination, and one for the food after rumination before it is digested. The ruminants without horns, as the camel, dromedary, &c., have one preparatory stomach before rumination, and one in which the cud can be afterwards retained before it goes into the digesting stomach. Those animals who eat the same kind of food with the rumi-

nants, and yet do not ruminate, as the horse and ass, have only one stomach, but part of it is lined with a cuticle, in which the food is first deposited, and by remaining there some time is rendered more digestible, when received into the digesting portion.

The ruminants with horns have molares in both jaws, and incisores only in the lower jaw. The ruminants without horns, have, in addition to these, what may be called fighting-teeth, or a substitute for horns. These are tusks in both jaws, intermediate teeth between the molares and tusks, and in the upper jaw two small teeth anterior to the tusks; none of which can be of any use in eating. The camelopardis forms an intermediate link in these respects. It has short horns, and no tusks.

125. A sect has lately been discovered in Silesia, which, though they have existed upwards of a century, have not attracted the public attention till lately. This concealment has been chiefly occasioned by their peculiar and fundamental maxims, which enjoin them to conform outwardly to the rites and ceremonies of other sects, when required to do so by considerations of personal ease and safety; to abstain from attempting to make any converts from the followers of a different faith, and to communicate their tenets only in the way of education, to their own children, or to infants consigned by poverty or death of natural protectors to their care. In their modes of worship they interpret strictly that injunction in scripture, *When you pray, go into your closets, and pray in secret*, &c. Worship, according to them, is acceptable, when offered in sincerity, by whomsoever and in whatsoever manner offered, but the precept of Christ, rightly understood, enjoins solitary and secret prayer. Accordingly, they abjure all assemblies and churches for religious worship. Their forms of devotion are a set of hymns in Latin, composed by their founder, in which the topics mentioned in the *Lord's prayer* are strictly adhered to; but these hymns are regarded by them as convenient, but not obligatory, and they hold themselves at liberty to follow any other mode, or merely to muse in silence, provided the topics of their meditation are those included in the *Lord's prayer*, and provided it be done in secret. This method including their whole practical religion, they, of course, reject all festivals, solemn days, consecrated places, and all rites, including baptism and the eucharist. The latter they consider themselves as celebrating whenever they eat and drink with recollections of Christ, this being, according to them, the true meaning of the command, *Do this in remembrance of me*. In their dress, language, manners, and social conduct, they conform to the prevailing customs of their country. Their system enjoins no forms of burial, marriage, &c., peculiar to themselves. These are points indifferent in themselves, and duty prescribes to conform to custom, because it *is* the custom, and because a departure from it would only occasion trouble and suspicion. In their moral and social conduct they are generally distinguished by good sense, industry, and benevolence. Their belief on doctrinal prints, such as the nature of Christ, and the state of souls after death, is not well understood, but they represent these points as disconnected with any practical consequences: as mere questions in history and metaphysics, about which a man is concerned to enquire for the sake of truth, but not for the sake of any mode of external conduct to be engrafted on it. Good behaviour in private life, and a sincere belief, whatever its objects be, they deem sufficient to insure the approbation of the Deity.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN

STATE PAPERS.

AMERICAN

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MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

IT would have given me, fellow citizens, great satisfaction to announce, in the moment of your meeting, that the difficulties in our foreign relations, existing at the time of your last separation, had been amicably and justly terminated. I lost no time in taking those measures which were most likely to bring them to such a termination, by special missions, charged with such powers and instructions as, in the event of failure, could leave no imputation on either our moderation or forbearance. The delays which have since taken place in our negotiations with the British government appear to have proceeded from causes which do not forbid the expectation that, during the course of the session, I may be enabled to lay before you their final issue. What will be that of the negotiations for settling our differences with Spain, nothing which had taken place at the date of the last dispatches, enables us to pronounce. On the western side of the Missisippi, she advanced in considerable force, and took post at the settlement of Bayou Pierre, on the Red river. This village was originally settled by France, was held by her as long she held Louisiana, and was delivered to Spain only as a part of Louisiana; being small, insulated, and distant, it was not observed, at the moment of re-delivery to France and the United States, that she continued a guard of half a dozen men, which had been stationed there. A proposition, however, having been lately made, by our commander in chief, to assume the Sabine river as a temporary line of separation between the troops of the two nations until the issue of our negotiations shall

be known, this has been referred by the Spanish commandant to his superior, and in the mean time he has withdrawn his force to the western side of the Sabine river. The correspondence on this subject, now communicated, will exhibit more particlarly the present state of things in that quarter.

The nature of that country requires, indispensably, that an unusual proportion of the force employed there should be cavalry, or mounted infantry. In order, therefore, that the commanding officer might be enabled to act with effect, I had authorized him to call on the governors of Orleans and Missisippi, for a corps of five hundred volunteer cavalry. The temporary arrangement he has proposed may perhaps render this unnecessary. But I inform you with great pleasure of the promptitude with which the inhabitants of those territories have tendered their services in defence of their country. It has done honour to themselves, entitled them to the confidence of their fellow citizens in every part of the union, and must strengthen the general determination to protect them efficaciously under all circumstances which may occur.

Having received information that in another part of the United States a great number of private individuals were combining together, arming and organizing themselves contrary to law, to carry on a military expedition against the territories of Spain, I thought it necessary by proclamation, as well as by special orders, to take measures for preventing and suppressing this enterprize, for seizing the vessels, arms and other means provided for it, and for arresting and bringing to justice its authors and abettors. It was due to that good faith which ought ever to be the rule of action in public, as well as in private transactions, it was due to good order, and regular government, that, while the public force was acting strictly on the defensive, and merely to protect our citizens from aggression, the criminal attempts of private individuals to decide for their country the question of peace or war, by commencing active and unauthorized hostilities, should be promptly and efficaciously suppressed.

Whether it will be necessary to enlarge our regular force, will depend on the result of our negotiations with Spain; but as it is uncertain when that result will be known, the provisional measures requisite for that, and to meet any pressure intervening in that quarter, will be a subject for your early consideration.

The possession of both banks of the Missisippi reducing to a single point the defence of that river, its waters, and the country adjacent, it becomes highly necessary to provide for that point a more adequate security. Some position above its mouth, commanding the passage of the river, should be rendered sufficiently strong to cover the armed vessels which may be stationed there for defence, and, in conjunction with them, to present an insuperable obstacle to any force attempting to pass. The approaches to the city of New Orleans, from the eastern quarter also, will require to be examined, and more effectually guarded. For the internal support of the country, the encouragement of a strong settlement on the western side of the Missisippi, within reach of New

Orleans, will be worthy the consideration of the legislature.

The gun-boats, authorized by an act of the last session, are so advanced that they will be ready for service in the ensuing spring; circumstances permitted us to allow the time necessary for their more solid construction. As a much larger number will still be wanting to place our sea-port towns and waters in that state of defence to which we are competent and they entitled, a similar appropriation for a further provision of them is recommended for the ensuing year.

A further appropriation will also be necessary for repairing fortifications already established, and the erection of such other works as may have real effect in obstructing the approach of an enemy to our sea-port towns, or their remaining before them.

In a country whose constitution is derived from the will of the people, directly expressed by their free suffrages; where the principal executive functionaries, and those of the legislature, are renewed by them at short periods; where, under the character of jurors, they exercise in person the greatest portion of the judiciary powers; where the laws are consequently so formed and administered as to bear with equal weight and favour on all, restraining no man in the pursuits of honest industry, and securing to every one the property which that acquires, it would not be supposed that any safeguards could be needed against insurrection or enterprize on the public peace or authority. The laws, however, aware that these should not be trusted to moral restraints only, have wisely provided punishment for these crimes when committed: but, would it not be salutary to give, also, the means of preventing their commission?— Where an enterprize is meditated, by private individuals, against a foreign nation, in amity with the United States, powers of prevention, to a certain extent, are given by the laws. Would they not be as reasonable and useful where the enterprize preparing is against the United States? While adverting to this branch of law, it is proper to observe, that, in enterprizes meditated against foreign nations, the ordinary process of binding to the observance of the peace and good behaviour, could it be extended to acts to be done out of the jurisdiction of the United States, would be effectual in some cases where the offender is able to keep out of sight every indication of his purpose, which could draw on him the exercise of the powers now given by law.

The states on the coast of Barbary seem generally disposed at present to respect our peace and friendship. With Tunis alone some uncertainty remains. Persuaded that it is our interest to maintain our peace with them on equal terms, or not at all, I propose to send, in due time, a reinforcement into the Mediterranean, unless previous information shall show it to be unnecessary.

We continue to receive proofs of the growing attachment of our Indian neighbours, and of their disposition to place all their interests under the patronage of the United States. These dispositions are inspired by their confidence in our justice, and the sincere concern we feel for their welfare. And as long as we discharge these high and honourable functions with the integrity and good faith

which alone can entitle us to their continuance, we may expect to reap the just reward in their peace and friendship.

The expedition of Messrs. Lewis and Clarke, for exploring the river Missouri, and the best communication from that to the Pacific Ocean, has had all the success which could have been expected. They have traced the Missouri nearly to its source, descended the Columbia to the Pacific Ocean, ascertained with accuracy the geography of that interesting communication across our continent, learnt the character of the country, of its commerce and inhabitants; and it is but justice to say, that Messrs. Lewis and Clarke, and their brave companions, have, by this arduous service, deserved well of their country.

The attempt to explore the Red River, under the direction of Mr. Freeman, though conducted with a zeal and prudence meriting entire approbation, has not been equally successful. After proceeding up it about six hundred miles, nearly as far as the French settlements had extended while the country was in their possession, our geographers were obliged to return, without completing their work.

Very useful additions have also been made to our knowledge of the Missisippi, by lieutenant Pike, who has ascended it to its source, and whose journal and map, giving the details of his journey, will shortly be ready for communication to both houses of congress. Those of Messrs. Lewis, Clarke, and Freeman will require further time to be digested and prepared. These important surveys, in addition to those before possessed, furnish materials for commencing an accurate map of the Missisippi and its western waters. Some principal rivers, however, remain still to be explored, towards which the authorization of congress, by moderate appropriations, will be requisite.

I congratulate you, fellow-citizens, on the approach of the period at which you may interpose your authority, constitutionally, to withdraw the citizens of the United States from all further participation in these violations of human rights, which have been so long continued on the unoffending inhabitants of Africa, and which the morality, the reputation, and the best interests of our country have long been eager to proscribe. Although no law you may pass can take prohibitory effect till the first day of the year 1808, yet the intervening period is not too long to prevent, by timely notice, expeditions which cannot be completed before that day.

The receipts at the treasury, during the year ending on the 30th day of September last, have amounted to near fifteen millions of dollars, which have enabled us, after meeting the current demands, to pay two millions seven hundred thousand dollars of the American claims, in part of the price of Louisiana; to pay, of the funded debt, upwards of three millions of principal, and nearly four of interest, and, in addition, to reimburse, in the course of the present month, near two millions of five and a half per cent. stock. These payments and reimbursements of the funded debt, with those which had been made in the four years and a half preceding, will, at the close of the present year, have extinguished upwards of twenty-three millions of principal.

The duties composing the Mediterranean fund will cease by law at the end of the present session. Considering, however, that they are levied chiefly on luxuries, and that we have an impost on salt, a necessary of life, the free use of which otherwise is so important, I recommend to your consideration the suppression of the duties on salt, and the continuation of the Mediterranean fund, instead thereof, for a short time; after which, that also will become unnecessary for any purpose now within contemplation.

When both of these branches of revenue shall in this way be relinquished, there will still, ere long, be an accumulation of monies in the treasury, beyond the instalments of public debt which we are permitted by congress to pay. They cannot then, without a modification assented to by the public creditors, be applied to the extinguishment of this debt, and the complete liberation of our revenues, the most desirable of all objects. Nor, if our peace continues, will they be wanting for any other existing purpose. The question, therefore, now comes forward, to what other objects shall these surplusses be appropriated, and the whole surplus of impost after the entire discharge of the public debt, and during those intervals when the purposes of war shall not call for them? Shall we suppress the impost, and give that advantage to foreign over domestic manufactures? On a few articles of more general and necessary use, the suppression, in due season, will doubtless be right; but the great mass of the articles on which impost is paid are foreign luxuries, purchased by those only who are rich enough to afford themselves the use of them. Their patriotism would certainly prefer its continuance and application to the great purposes of the public education, roads, rivers, canals, and such other objects of public improvement, as it may be thought proper to add to the constitutional enumeration of federal powers. By those operations, new channels of communication will be opened between the states; the lines of separation will disappear; their interest will be identified, and their union cemented by new and indissoluble ties. Education is here placed among the articles of public care; not that it would be proposed to take its ordinary branches out of the hands of private enterprize, which manages so much better all the concerns to which it is equal: but a public institution can alone supply those sciences, which, though rarely called for, are yet necessary to complete the circle, all the parts of which contribute to the improvement of the country, and some of them to its preservation. The subject is now proposed for the consideration of congress, because, if approved, by the time the state legislatures shall have deliberated on this extension of the federal trusts, and the laws shall be passed, and other arrangements made for their execution, the necessary funds will be on hand, and without employment. I suppose an amendment of the constitution, by consent of the states, necessary, because the objects now recommended are not among those enumerated in the constitution, and to which it permits the public monies to be applied.

The present consideration of a national establishment, for education particularly, is rendered pro-

per by this circumstance also, that, if congress, approving the proposition, shall yet think it more eligible to found it on a donation of lands, they have it now in their power to endow it with those which will be among the earliest to produce the necessary income. This foundation would have the advantage of being independent on war, which may suspend other improvements, by requiring for its own purposes the resources destined for them.

This, fellow-citizens, is the state of the public interests, at the present moment, and according to the information now possessed. But such is the situation of the nations of Europe, and such, too, the predicament in which we stand with some of them, that we cannot rely with certainty on the present aspect of our affairs, that may change from moment to moment, during the course of your session, or after you shall have separated. Our duty is therefore to act upon things as they are, and to make a reasonable provision for whatever they may be. Were armies to be raised whenever a speck of war is visible in our horizon, we never should have been without them. Our resources would have been exhausted on dangers which have never happened, instead of being reserved for what is really to take place. A steady, perhaps a quickened pace, in preparations for the defence of our sea-port towns and waters, an early settlement of the most exposed and vulnerable parts of our country, a militia so organized that its effective portions can be called to any point in the union, or volunteers, instead of them, to serve a sufficient time, are means which may always be ready, yet never preying on our resources until actually called into use.—They will maintain the public interests, while a more permanent force shall be in a course of preparation. But much will depend on the promptitude with which these means can be brought into activity. If war be forced upon us, in spite of our long and vain appeals to the justice of nations, rapid and vigorous movements, in its outset, will go far towards securing us in its course and issue, and towards throwing its burthens on those who render necessary the resort from reason to force.

The result of our negotiations, or such incidents in their course as may enable us to infer their probable issue, such further movements, also, on our western frontier as may show whether war is to be pressed there, while negotiation is protracted elsewhere, shall be communicated to you from time to time, as they become known to me, with whatever other information I possess or may receive, which may aid your deliberations on the great national interests committed to your charge.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

December 2, 1806.

SPECIAL MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

I have the satisfaction to inform you that the negotiation depending between the United States and the government of Great Britain is proceeding in a spirit of friendship and accommodation which pro-

mises a result of mutual advantage. Delays indeed have taken place, occasioned by the long illness and subsequent death of the British minister charged with that duty. But the commissioners appointed by that government to resume the negotiation, have shown every disposition to hasten its progress: it is, however, a work of time, as many arrangements are necessary to place our future harmony on stable grounds. In the mean time we find, by the communications of our plenipotentiaries, that a temporary suspension of the act of last session prohibiting certain importations, would, as a mark of candid disposition on our part, and of confidence in the temper and views with which they have been met, have a happy effect on its course.

A step so friendly will afford further evidence that all our proceedings have flowed from views of justice and conciliation, and that we give them willingly that form which may best meet corresponding dispositions.

Add to this, that the same motives which produced the postponement of the act till the fifteenth of November last are in favour of its further suspension: and as we have reason to hope that it may soon yield to arrangements of mutual consent and convenience, justice seems to require that the same measure may be dealt out to the few cases which may fall within its short course, as to all others preceding and following it. I cannot, therefore, but recommend the suspension of this act for a reasonable time, on considerations of justice, amity, and the public interests.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

December 3, 1806.

GALLATIN'S REPORT TO CONGRESS, DECEMBER 5TH, 1806.

In obedience to the directions of the act supplementary to the act entitled "An act to establish the treasury department," the secretary of the treasury respectfully submits the following report and estimates:

Revenue and Receipts.

The net revenue arising from duties of merchandize and tonnage which accrued during the year 1804, amounted, after deducting that portion which arose from the additional duties constituting the Mediterranean fund, to	$12,673,558
And that which accrued during the year 1805, amounted, after making a similar deduction to	13,083,823

It is ascertained that the nett revenue which has accrued during the three first quarters of the year 1806, exceeds that of the corresponding quarters of the year 1805; and that branch of the revenue may, exclusively of the Mediterranean fund, be safely estimated for the present at thirteen millions of dollars.

It appears that the sales of the public lands have, during the year ending on the 30th September, 1806, exceeded 473,000 acres. The actual payments by purchasers have, during that period, amounted to 850,000 dollars, of which sum near 700,000 dollars have been paid in specie, and the residue in stock of the public debt. The specie receipts from that source may, after deducting charges and the five per cent. reserved for roads, be estimated for the ensuing year at five hundred thousand dollars.

The receipts arising from the permanent revenue of the United States may, therefore, without including the arrears of direct tax and internal revenues, the duties on postage, and other incidental branches, be computed, for the year 1807, at thirteen millions and five hundred thousand dollars 13,500,000

And the payments into the treasury, during the same year, on account of the temporary duties, constituting the Mediterranean fund, are estimated at one million of dollars 1,000,000

14,500,000

Making, in the whole, an aggregate of fourteen million and five hundred thousand dollars.

Expenditures.

The permanent expences are estimated at eleven million and four hundred thousand dollars, and consist of the following items, viz.:

1. The annual appropriation of eight millions of dollars for the payment of the principal and interest of the public debt, of which sum not more than three millions and six hundred thousand dollars will, for the year 1807, be applicable to the payment of interest 8,000,000

2. For the civil department, and all domestic expences of a civil nature, including invalid pensions, the light-house and mint establishments, the expences of surveying public lands, the fourth instalment of the loan due to Maryland, and a sum of one hundred and thirty thousand dollars to meet such miscellaneous appropriations, not included in the estimates, as may be made by congress 1,150,000

3. For expences incident to the intercourse with foreign nations, including the permanent appropriation for Algiers 200,000

4. For the military and Indian departments, including trading houses, and the permament appropriations for certain Indian tribes 1,150,000

5. For the naval establishment 900,000

11,400,000

The extraordinary demands for the year 1807, already authorized by law, amount to two millions seven hundred thousand dollars, viz.:

The balance of the American claims assumed by the french convention which remained unpaid on the 30th September last, amounting to 700,000

And the two millions of dollars appropriated by the act of 13th of February, 1806, making provision for defraying any extraordinary expences attending the intercourse between the United States and foreign nations 2,000,000

2,700,000

14,100,000

Making altogether fourteen millions one hundred thousand dollars. From which it appears, that besides a surplus of four hundred thousand dollars, the resources of the ensuing year will be

sufficient to meet the current demands; and to discharge, without recurring to the loan authorized by the last-mentioned act, the extraordinary appropriation of two millions for foreign intercourse.

Under the authority given by that act, a credit of one million of dollars has been opened in Holland to the ministers of the United States appointed to treat with Spain. Should the credit be used, the million will be charged to the proper appropriation; but although the balance chargeable to the expenditure of the year 1807 will in that case be only one instead of two millions, as stated in the above estimate, the general result will be the same, as it will then be necessary to replace in Holland the million thus employed, for a different object than the payment of the foreign debt, to which it now stands charged.

The balance in the treasury amounted, on the 30th day of September, 1805, to 4,558,664 dollars 2 cents, and on the 30th day of September, 1806, to 5,496,969 dollars 77 cents. But it will, on account of the heavy payments to be made in the course of this month, for the public debt, be probably reduced, on the 1st January, 1807, to a sum not much exceeding four millions of dollars.

Public Debt.

The proceedings of the commissioners of the sinking fund shows that a considerable portion of the annual appropriation of eight millions of dollars was applicable this year to the reimbursement or purchase of the domestic debt; no more than 17,517 dollars and 61 cents were offered at market price, and accordingly purchased. The reimbursement of the navy 6 per cent. stock, amounting to 711,700 dollars was therefore effected on the 30th day of September last, and that of the five and a half per cent. stock, amounting to 1,847,500 dollars, is advertised for the 1st day of January next. The payment of the last-mentioned sum will be made by the treasury in the course of this month. Although a more than usual portion of the appropriation for the calendar year 1806 falls, for that reason, on the last quarter, it appears that the payments on account of the principal of the public debt have, during the year ending on the 30th day of September, 1806, amounted to near three millions two hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

	Dollars.	
It appears that the payments on account of the principal of the public debt, have, from the 1st of April, 1801, to the 30th September, 1806, amounted to		21,203,903 55
The payments on the same account to be made by the treasury in the course of this month, are,		
For the reimbursement of the five and a half per cent. stock	1,847,500	
For the annual reimbursement of the six per cent. and deferred stocks	993,389 19	
Amounting altogether to		2,840,889 19
		24,044,792 74

And making the total of principal of the public debt, reimbursed from the 1st of April, 1801, to the 1st

of January, 1807, more than twenty-four millions of dollars.

During the same period there have also been paid to Great Britain, in satisfaction and discharge of the money which the United States might have been liable to pay, in pursuance of the provisions of the sixth article of the treaty of 1794, two millions six hundred and sixty-four thousand dollars; and to the holders of bills drawn by the minister of the United States at Paris, on account of American claims assumed by the convention with France, a sum exceeding three millions and fifty thousand dollars, neither of which sums is included in the preceding statement of debt redeemed.

As the only parts of the public debt which the United States have a right to reimburse during the year 1807, consist of the annual reimbursement of the six per cent. and deferred stocks, estimated at 1,540,707 dollars, and of the four and a half per cent. stock, amounting to 176,000 dollars, it will not be practicable, unless purchases can be effected within the limitations prescribed by law, to apply, during that year, the whole of the annual appropriation of eight millions of dollars. The unexpected balance, together with the appropriation for the year 1808, will enable the United States to reimburse, on the 1st of January, 1809, the whole of the eight per cent. stock, which is irredeemable before that day.

But in order to have a clear view of the situation of the public debt, after the year 1808, and to decide on the propriety of making further legislative provision for that object, it appears necessary to state distinctly: 1st. The operations which will take place in relation to the debt during the years 1807 and 1808. 2dly. The several species and aggregate of debt, which will have been extinguished between the 1st April, 1801, and the 1st January, 1809. 3dly. The several species and aggregate of debt remaining unpaid on the last-mentioned day. 4thly. A comparative view of the revenue and annual payments on account of the debt after that day.

I. The payments to be made during the years 1807 and 1808, on account of the principal and interest of the public debt, consist of the following items, viz.:

	Dollars.	
Interest and reimbursement of the six per cent. and deferred stocks		6,688,296 08
Of which sum, the sum required for interest is	3,512,337 83	
And the reimbursement of principal will amount to	3,175,958 25	
	6,688,296 08	
Interest and charges on all the other species of debt		3,529,457 50
Principal of the eight per cent. and four and a half per cent. stocks		6,538,400
Making altogether		16,756,153 58
That is to say, interest	7,041,795 33	
And in reimbursement of principal	9,714,358 25	
	16,756,153 58	

This sum exceeds, by only 756,000 dollars, the sixteen millions appropriated by law for those two years, and that difference may be supplied, according to law, from the surplusses of revenue

already accrued, which are sufficient for that purpose; and which it will be eligible to apply in that manner, in order that the United States may not continue to pay an interest of eight per cent. any longer than they are compelled to do it by the terms of the loan.

	Dollars.	
II. The amount of debt redeemed from the 1st of April, 1801, to the 1st January next, has been already stated to be	24,044,792	74
And the principal of which will be reimbursed during the years of 1807 and 1808, amounts, by the preceding statement, to	9,714,358	25
Making together more than thirty-three millions, seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars, reimbursed between the 1st April, 1801, and the first January, 1809	33,759,150	99

Which sum consists of the following items, viz.:

The whole of the foreign debt	10,236,108	05
The whole of the loans formerly obtained from the bank of the United States, and of the navy six, five and half, four and half, and eight per cent. stocks	12,537,600	
Annual reimbursement of the six per cent. and deferred stocks	10,631,575	67
Payment in various species of stock for public lands, stock purchased, and unfunded debt reimbursed	353,867	27
	33,759,150	99

III. The debt remaining unpaid on the 1st day of January, 1809, will consist of the following species:

Unredeemed amount of old six per cent. and deferred stocks, reimbursable only at the rate of eight per cent. a year (for principal and interest) on the nominal amount	27,142,357	21
Three per cent. stock	19,019,481	56
1796 six per cent. stock, redeemable in 1819	80,000	
Louisiana stock, reimbursable in four annual instalments, in the years 1818, 1819, 1820, and 1821	11,250,000	00
	57,491,838	77

Amounting altogether to near fifty seven millions and five hundred thousand dollars.

The Louisiana stock cannot be reimbursed before the period fixed by the contract; the gradual operation of the annual reimbursement will extinguish the old six per cent. in the year 1818, and the deferred stock in 1824; after which year, the only remaining incumbrance will be the interest on the three per cent. stock, which, in its present shape, may be considered as irredeemable. Purchase cannot be relied on, as the application of even an inconsiderable sum would raise the stocks above the prices limited by law. It follows that all the species of debt, on which the entire annual appropriation of 8,000,000 of dollars could operate, will have been reimbursed prior to the year 1809; that the remaining debt cannot, without some modifications, assented to by the public creditors, be more rapidly or completely discharged than is here stated; and that the annual

payments on that account will, after the year 1808, and prior to the year 1818 be reduced to the interest and annual reimbursement, amounting to near four millions, six hundred thousand, as will more fully appear by the annexed table marked G.

IV. The revenue derived from customs during the year 1802, which was a year of European peace, was much less in proportion than that of any of the immediately preceding or following years, and yet exceed ten millions of dollars. As it has been ascertained that the population of the United States increases at the rate of thirty-five per cent. in ten years, the revenue derived from customs for the year 1812, may be estimated at thirteen millions, five hundred thousand dollars; to which, adding only five hundred thousand dollars, for the annual proceeds of the sales of public lands, will give fourteen millions of dollars for the total revenue of that year, or for the average revenue of 1809—1815. And this must be considered as a very moderate computation, since it does not include the revenue derived from New Orleans; it is predicated on the supposition that the wealth of the United States increases in no greater ratio than their population; and does not exceed the sum, which, exclusively of the Mediterranean fund, was received last year into the treasury.

The annual payments on account of the public debt will, during the same period, amount, as has been already stated, to 4,600,000 dollars. All the other expences of the United States, whether domestic or foreign, of a civil nature or for the support of the existing military and naval establishments, do not at present exceed three millions, five hundred thousand dollars. The total annual expenditure, allowing four hundred thousand dollars a year for contingencies, may therefore be estimated, after the year 1808, at eight millions and a half; which, deducted from a revenue of fourteen millions, will leave a neat annual surplus of five millions and a half of dollars.

The question now recurs, whether a portion of that surplus would not be most advantageously employed in hastening the reduction of the debt? Whether some mode may not be devised to provide, within a short period, for its final and complete reimbursement, and thereby release the public revenue from every incumbrance? This can only be effected by a modification of the debt, as assented to by the public creditors; and a conversion of the old six per cent. deferred, and three per cent. stocks, on terms mutually beneficial, into a common six per cent. stock, redeemable within a limited time, has appeared the most simple and eligible, if not the only practicable plan that can be adopted. It will only be necessary to state, that if such a plan should be sanctioned by congress, and accepted by the creditors, those several species of debt, amounting on the 1st January, 1809, to something more than forty-six millions of dollars, would be converted into a six per cent. stock, amounting to less than forty millions of dollars; which the continued annual appropriation of eight millions of dollars would (besides paying the Louisiana debt) reimburse within a period of less than seven years, or before the end of the year 1815.

The total annual expenditure for those seven years would then, allowing still 3,500,000 dollars for current expences, and four hundred thousand dollars for contingencies, amount to something less than twelve millions of dollars; which, deducted from a revenue of fourteen millions of dollars, would still leave, after the year 1808, a clear surplus of more than two millions of dollars, applicable to such new objects of general improvement or national defence as the legislature might direct, and existing circumstances require. And, after the year 1815, no other incumbrance would remain on the revenue than the interest and reimbursement of the Louisiana stock; the last payment of which, in the year 1821, would complete the final extinguishment of the public debt.

All which is respectfully submitted.

ALBERT GALLATIN,
Secretary of the Treasury.
Treasury Department, December 5, 1806.

WAR DEPARTMENT.

SIR, *December* 15, 1806.

Agreeable to the request of the committee, as expressed in your letter of the 10th inst., I herewith enclose such information on the subject referred to them, as is possessed by this department, in addition to what was communicated to congress with the message of the president of the United States, at the commencement of the present session, viz.:

A copy of governor Cordero's answer to general Wilkinson's letter of the 4th October, marked No. 1, and an extract from captain general Salcedo's answer to governor Claiborne's first letter to governor Herrera, marked No. 2.

To which I would beg leave to add the following statement and remarks:

The law fixing the military establishment of the United States being under the eye of the committee, it may only be necessary to remark that, of the force which it authorizes, eighteen companies are posted as follows, viz.:

One company in Portland and Portsmouth harbours.

One do. Boston harbour, and at the arsenal Springfield.

One do. Rhode Island and Connecticut.

One do. New York harbour.

One do. on the Delaware, below Philadelphia.

One do. Norfolk and Baltimore harbours.

One do. Charleston harbour, S. C., and in North Carolina.

One do. frontiers of Georgia.

One do. do. of Tenessee.

One do. at Chickasaw Bluffs and Arkansas.

One do. Massac and Vincennes.

One do. at St. Louis.

One do. Chikago, south end of Lake Michigan.

One do. Detroit.

One do. Michillimackinack.

One do. Niagara.

One do. Fort Wayne, on the portage between the Wabash and the Miami of the Lakes. The remaining force is under the immediate command of the general in the Orleans and Missisippi territories.

The corps are nearly complete, including the recruits now

on their passage for the lower Missisippi.

In addition to the regular force under the immediate command of the general, he is authorized to call on the Orleans and Missisippi territories for such reinforcements of militia, as may be thought expedient.

Arms for infantry, and pistols and swords for a due proportion of cavalry, have been forwarded to New Orleans, for the use of such militia as might be called into service.

The Spanish force, which has lately crossed and recrossed the Sabine, has been represented as amounting to 1500 men, principally mounted militia; there is, however, reason for believing that their numbers have been overrated. Their force at Pensacola, Mobile, and Baton Rouge, amounts, probably, to from 500 to 650 men.

It is not possible to form any thing like a correct opinion of the force which Spain could bring into the field from her extensive western and southern territories, or from beyond sea. It may be presumed that the war in which she is at present engaged, and which endangers some of her valuable possessions, must render it difficult for her to draw a very considerable force to any point on our frontiers.

As to the protection of our citizens, I may be allowed to refer the committee to the message of the president of the United States to congress, of the 2d instant; in which he has expressed his idea of the means of protecting them at the commencement of a war, and until a regular army may be raised. But as the right of deciding on this, as well as other questions, rests with congress, the president must rely on the means they shall judge it most expedient to provide.

I am, very respectfully, sir, your obedient servant,

H. DEARBORNE.

Hon. John Randolph, Chairman, &c.

—

Camp of Nacogdoches, October 11, 1806.

SIR,

I informed your excellency, by my letter of the 19th of last month, that I had sent that of your excellency of the 24th of the same month to the captain-general, brigadier Don Nimensio Salcedo, on whom I depend, because I was not invested with a competent authority for its discussion, and as the answer belonged to said chief. I flatter myself that, in consideration of the good of humanity which your excellency professed to wish, and of the good harmony which reigns between our governments, your excellency would have expected his answer to determine on your operations, because I am not at liberty not to carry into execution the orders which command me to consider the Hondo run, as the boundary line of the province.

I see, by the letter of your excellency of the 4th instant, which I have just received, that, against my hopes, you have marched your troops towards the Sabine, without any hostile views against the Spaniards, but the intention only of maintaining the pretensions of the United States to that side of said river.

Your excellency is very well acquainted with the sacred duties

of a soldier: I must in consequence declare to your excellency, that though the result of the operations which your excellency has undertaken ought not in any manner whatsoever to be considered as an act of hostility provoked by my government, I must oppose myself to it, in discharge of the obligation which I am under to oppose myself to the aggressions of the United States, and to preserve entire, as far as lies in my power, the dominions of my sovereign.

I take the proper means that your excellency may receive this letter, praying the Lord our God that he may preserve your life for many years.

I am, respectfully, &c.,

ANTONIO CORDERO.

His Excellency, General James Wilkinson.

Extract of a Letter from the Captain General, Don Nomecio Salcedo to Governor Claiborne, dated Chihuagua, 18th of September, 1806.

By my orders I am bound to maintain the best harmony with the government of the United States, and to that end I have directed all my views, as your excellency may be convinced by the conduct which has been followed, and by the letter, which, under my directions, the governor of the Texas wrote on the 7th of March last, to the commandant of the fort of Natchitoches, exhorting him not to repeat, on either side, any acts of hostility concerning the disputed territory. Of this letter major Porter acknowledged receipt, and gave assurances that he was on the point of sending an account of it to general Wilkinson, to whom he left the decision; which, however, has not as yet been verified. After this intelligence your excellency will find no just motive to draw the sword on account of the movements of the troops on this frontier, especially after being assured that neither those troops nor their chiefs have had, or at present have any orders to make new establishments. Your excellency may be assured that all my actions are directed in compliance with my duties, and with a view that I may, at no period whatever, be reproached with having suffered, in any manner, the usurpation of the smallest part of the dominions of my king under my charge.

But, in consideration of the assurances which your excellency gives that the subject is now in treaty between the two governments, and the frankness with which you state the disputed claim as one that shall be amicably adjusted, without availing ourselves of our rights, the operations of our troops shall be limited (under the responsibility of your excellency) to patroling the disputed lands, to see and prevent any settlement from being made by citizens of either nation.

Your excellency knows very well that while this is the most moderate behaviour I can adopt, I must also repel all aggressions of the American government, and act conformably to the strictest obligations of my station.

A PROCLAMATION, BY WILLIAM CHARLES COLE CLAIBORNE, GOVERNOR OF THE TERRITO-

RY OF ORLEANS, AND COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE MILITIA THEREOF.

Whereas I have received information that certain persons are combining and confederating in a traitorous project to subvert the authority of the government of the United States over a portion of the territories thereof, and to invade the dominions of the king of Spain, a prince in amity with the United States; I have thought proper to issue this my proclamation, hereby solemnly cautioning the citizens of this territory against entering into, or in any manner countenancing the conspiracy aforesaid; and that no one may remain ignorant of the fatal consequences which may await the parties concerned, I do now make it known, that the law of the United States declares, "That if any person or persons, owing allegiance to the United States of America, shall *levy war against them, or shall adhere to their enemies*, giving them aid and comfort within the United States or elsewhere, and shall be thereof convicted, on confession in open court, or on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act of the treason whereof he or they shall stand indicted, such person or persons shall be adjudged guilty of treason against the United States, and *shall suffer death.*" And that "If any person or persons, having knowledge of the commission of any of the treasons aforesaid, shall conceal, and not as soon as may be disclose and make known the same to the president of the United States, or some of the judges thereof, or to the president or governor of a particular state, or some one of the judges or justices thereof, such person or persons, on conviction, shall be adjudged guilty of misprision of treason, and shall be imprisoned not exceeding seven years, and fined not exceeding one thousand dollars."

And I do further make it known, that the law of the United States has also declared, "That if any person shall, within the territory or jurisdiction of the United States, begin, or set on foot, or provide, or prepare the means for any military expedition or enterprise, to be carried on from thence against the territory or dominions of any foreign prince or state, with whom the United States are at peace, every such person so offending shall, upon conviction, be adjudged guilty of a high misdemeanor, and shall suffer fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court in which the conviction shall be had, so as that such fine shall not exceed three thousand dollars, nor the term of imprisonment be more than three years."

Given at New Orleans, on the 16th day of December, in the year one thousand, eight hundred and six, &c.

W. C. C. CLAIBORNE.

By the Governor,

R. CLAIBORNE,
Sec. Pro. Tem.

ABSTRACTS OF LETTERS AND OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS PRESENTED BY JUDGE WORKMAN TO THE HONOURABLE THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE TERRITORY OF ORLEANS, ON THE 13TH JANUARY, 1807.

To the Honourable the House of Representatives of the Territory of Orleans.

GENTLEMEN,

Having lately adopted the unusual measure of adjourning the court of the county of Orleans, *sine die*, I feel it a duty incumbent on me to justify myself on the occasion to your honourable body, and to enable you, without delay, as far as lies in my power, to take such steps as your wisdom may deem requisite for our relief in the extraordinary and painful situation to which we are reduced. The documents herewith transmitted will inform you of the illegal arrest and transportation of certain persons by the authority of brigadier general Wilkinson; the proceedings which have been had in consequence; my unsuccessful applications to his excellency governor Claiborne for support, and the reasons which induced me to decline holding a court, whose authority and dignity I had not the means to maintain.

I have the honour to be, gentlemen, with sentiments of profound respect, your most obedient and most humble servant,

JAMES WORKMAN.

—

New Orleans, January 5, 1807.

To his Excellency Governor Claiborne.

SIR,

The late extraordinary events which have taken place in this territory have led to circumstances that now authorizes me to renew to your excellency, in a formal, official manner, the earnest request I have so frequently urged in conversation, that you would make use of the constitutional force placed under your command, to maintain the laws of your country, and protect its citizens against the unexampled tyranny which has been exercised over them.

It is notorious, that the commander in chief of the military force here has, by his own authority, arrested several citizens for civil offences. He has avowed on record, that he had adopted measures to send them out of the territory; he has openly declared his determination to usurp the functions of the judiciary, by making himself the only judge of the guilt of those whom he shall suspect, and he has in the same manner asserted, as yet without contradiction, that his measures were taken after several consultations with your excellency.

Writs of habeas corpus have been issued from my court. One of them, Peter V. Ogden, was brought before me and discharged. He was however again arrested soon after by order of general Wilkinson, together with an officer of this court, who had aided professionally in procuring Mr. Ogden's release. The general, in his return to subsequent writs of habeas corpus, issued by me in their behalf, referred me to a return made by him to the superior court; and in the further return which I ordered him to make, he has declared that neither of those persons was in his power, possession, or custody: but he does not assert what is requisite in such cases, in order to exempt from the penalty of a contempt of court, that these persons were not in his power, possession, or custody, at the time when the

writs were served. In consequence of this deficiency, I am called upon to issue an attachment against him.

Although a common cause would not require the step I am now taking, yet I deem it my duty, before any decisive measures are pursued against a man who has all the regular force, and, in pursuance of your public orders, a great part of that of the territory at his disposal, to ask your excellency whether you have the ability to enforce the decrees of the court in which I preside, and, if you have, whether you shall deem it expedient to do it in the present instance; or whether the allegation that you support these violent and unlawful measures is well founded?

Not only the conduct and powers of general Wilkinson, but various circumstances peculiar to our present situation, the alarm excited in the public mind, the description and character of a large portion of the population of this country, might render it dangerous in the highest degree to adopt the measure usual in ordinary cases of calling to the aid of the sheriff the *posse commitatus*, unless it were done with the assurance of being supported by your excellency in an efficient manner. I pray your excellency to give a precise and speedy answer to these enquiries. Should I be assured of your support, I shall forthwith punish, as the law directs, the contempt that has been offered to my court: on the other hand, if your excellency shall not think it practicable or proper to afford your aid, I shall not expose that court and its officers to the further contempt or insults of a man whom they are unable to punish or resist.

I have the honour to be,
Your excellency's most obedient,
And most humble servant,
JAMES WORKMAN,
Judge of the County of Orleans.

Compared and found conformable to the original letter transmitted to governor Claiborne by George T. Ross, sheriff of the county.

GEORGE T. ROSS.

To his Excellency Governor Claiborne.

SIR,

Not having received any answer to my letter to your excellency of the 5th instant, and considering your silence on the subject of it as a proof, in addition to those that previously existed, that your excellency not only declines the performance of your duties as chief magistrate of this territory, but actually supports the lawless measures of its oppressor, I have adjourned the court of the county of Orleans *sine die*. And I took this step without granting the attachment sued for against general Wilkinson, for the reasons alluded to in my late communication. Had this process issued, and the general, in pursuance of his menaces, made resistance, the sheriff would then have been authorized and required by law, independent of the court, to call the aid of the *posse commitatus*. The ruinous effects of that measure at this time, the confusion and destruction to which it would probably have led, in consequence of your excellency's refusal of your support, are obvious to every person acquainted with our present

dreadful situation, and will fully justify my conduct in the opinion of every friend to my country. When your excellency shall think proper to resume the legitimate authority which you have abdicated, and be disposed to exert it in support of the constitution and laws, I shall then (if in my present office) cheerfully resume the judicial duties which I am now unable to perform.

I have the honour to be your excellency's most obedient humble servant,

JAMES WORKMAN,
Judge of the County of Orleans.

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Certificate Relative to the Application of Mr. Livingston for a Writ of Habeas Corpus, in the Case of James Alexander and Peter V. Ogden.

On the application for the allowance of the above writ, it was stated by Mr. Livingston, who applied for the same, that he had reason to believe and did believe, that unless the same were instantly allowed, the persons would be removed beyond the reach of the process of this court. Whereupon the same was allowed returnable without delay.

JAMES WORKMAN.

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General Wilkinson requests the honourable judge Workman may have the goodness to receive the general's answer to the superior court of the territory in the case of the traitor Bollman, as applicable to the traitors who are the subjects of this writ.

JAMES WILKINSON.

On motion of Mr. Livingston, ordered, that Gen. James Wilkinson, to whom a writ of habeas corpus was directed, commanding him to bring up the bodies of James Alexander and Peter V. Ogden make a further and more explicit return thereto, or show cause on Monday next, at the opening of the court, why an attachment should not issue against him.

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Further return of Gen. Wilkinson, in the case of Peter V. Ogden.

The undersigned, commanding the armies of the United States, has taken upon himself the responsibility of arresting Peter V. Ogden, on a charge of misprision of treason against the government and laws of the United States, and has the honour to inform the honourable James Workman, judge of the county of Orleans, that the body of the said Peter V. Ogden, is not in his power, possession, or custody.

JAMES WILKINSON.

New Orleans, Dec. 26, 1807.

On this return Mr. Livingston moved that an attachment do issue against Brig. Gen. James Wilkinson.

THOMAS S. KENNEDY,
Clerk of the Orleans county court.

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[The same return and the same motion were made in the case of Mr. Alexander.]

—

Copy of George T. Ross's affidavit respecting general Wilkinson.

George T. Ross, sheriff of the county of Orleans, being duly sworn, deposeth and saith: that

on the occasion of serving a rule of the court of the county of Orleans, on brigadier general James Wilkinson, the said general observed that if he, this deponent, should come again, he need not be surprised if admittance was refused him. This deponent then asked, if the remark applied to his coming as a private gentleman, or his coming in his discharge of his duty as sheriff, to which the said general replied, that the remark appplied only to his coming in his official character.

G. T. ROSS, *shff. of Orleans.*

New Orleans, Jan. 11, 1807.

Sworn before me, this 11th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1807.

JAMES WORKMAN,
Judge of the county of Orleans.

—

New Orleans, Jan. 29.

The following is part of the presentment made by the grand jury, at the opening of the superior court of this territory:

At a session of the superior court of the territory of Orleans, holden at the city hall of the city of New Orleans, on Saturday the 24th of January, in the year of our Lord 1807, came the grand jury in and for the said territory, and made the following presentment:

In addition to the bills of indictment now preferred by the grand jury for the city of Orleans, they feel themselves imperiously called upon to present, as a most dangerous and alarming evil, the late unprecedented exercise of military power in this city. They have seen, with no less astonishment than grief, the laws and the civil authority prostrated before a military force. They have seen the citizens of the United States and of this territory seized upon and imprisoned by that force, and deprived of the benefit of that great bulwark of civil liberty, the writ of habeas corpus. Nay, more; they have seen the general commanding the American army here come before this honourable court, and openly avow such illegal acts, and declare that he would persevere in them, and to this grand jury the same general has acknowledged the commission of such acts, and sought to justify them by alleging that they were previously advised or approved by the governor and two of the judges of this territory. Whoever his advisers were, we hold such advice, under existing circumstances, as a total dereliction of all regard to the constitution and laws of the United States, and as striking at the very foundation of civil liberty. We enter not into the question, how far it is allowable to do evil, that good may result from it; for we are no casuists. Many specious reasons are urged in justification of those arrests. We leave to those who urge them to show their validity, and to this honourable court to form a judgment thereon.

New Orleans, Jan. 24, 1807.

Indorsed, a true presentment.

EVAN JONES, *foreman.*

Names of the Jurors.

Evan Jones, *foreman*
George Pollock
Wm. Davis
Wm. Mumford
Jno. Palfrey
Wm. Kenner
Jh. M'Neil
S. B. Davis
Walters Clark
Ex. Arnaud

Edmd. Forrestall
Wm. Nott
D. Urquhart
P. F. Dubourg
N. Girod
J. Touro
F. Duplessis.

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

To the Senate, and House of Representatives, &c.

Agreeably to the request of the house of representatives, communicated in their resolution of the 16th instant, I proceed to state, under the reserve therein expressed, information received touching an illegal combination of private individuals against the peace and safety of the union, and a military expedition planned by them against the territories of a power in amity with the United States, with the measures I have pursued for suppressing the same.

I had, for some time, been in the constant expectation of receiving such further information as would have enabled me to lay before the legislature the termination, as well as the beginning and progress of this scene of depravity, so far as it has been acted on the Ohio and its waters. From this the state of safety of the lower country might have been estimated on probable grounds, and the delay was indulged the rather, because no circumstance had yet made it necessary to call in the aid of the legislative functions. Information, now recently communicated, has brought us nearly to the period contemplated. The mass of what I have received in the course of these transactions is voluminous: but little has been given under the sanction of an oath, so as to constitute formal and legal evidence. It is chiefly in the form of letters, often containing such a mixture of rumours, conjectures, and suspicions, as render it difficult to sift out the real facts, and unadviseable to hazard more than general outlines, strengthened by concurrent information, or the particular credibility of the relator. In this state of the evidence, delivered sometimes too under the restriction of private confidence, neither safety nor justice will permit the exposing names, except that of the principal actor, whose guilt is placed beyond question.

Some time in the latter part of September, I received intimations that designs were in agitation in the western country, unlawful and unfriendly to the peace of the union; and that the prime mover in these was Aaron Burr, heretofore distinguished by the favour of his country. The grounds of these intimations being inconclusive, the objects uncertain, and the fidelity of that country known to be firm, the only measure taken was to urge the informants to use their best endeavours to get further insight into the designs and proceedings of the suspected persons, and to communicate them to me.

It was not till the latter part of October that the objects of the conspiracy began to be perceived, but still so blended and involved in mystery, that nothing distinct could be singled out for pursuit. In that state of uncertainty, as to the crime contemplated, the acts done, and the legal course to be

pursued, I thought it best to send to the scene, where these things were principally in transaction, a person in whose integrity, understanding, and discretion entire confidence could be reposed, with instructions to investigate the plots going on, to enter into conference (for which he had sufficient credentials) with the governors, and all other officers, civil and military, and with their aid, to do on the spot whatever should be necessary to discover the designs of the conspirators, arrest their means, bring their persons to punishment, and to call out the force of the country to suppress any unlawful enterprize in which it should be found they were engaged. By this time it was known that many boats were under preparation, stores of provisions collecting, and an unusual number of suspicious characters in motion on the Ohio and its waters. Besides dispatching the confidential agent to that quarter, orders were at the same time sent to the governors of the Orleans and the Missisippi territories, and to the commanders of the land and naval forces there, to be on their guard against surprize, and in constant readiness to resist any enterprize which might be attempted on the vessels, posts, or other objects under their care: and on November 8, instructions were forwarded to general Wilkinson to hasten an accommodation with the Spanish commandant on the Sabine, and, as soon as that was effected, to fall back with his princial force to the hither bank of the Missisippi, for the defence of the interesting points on that river. By a letter received from that officer, on the 25th of November, but dated October 21st, we learnt that a confidential agent of Aaron Burr had been deputed to him with communications, partly written in cypher, and partly oral, explaining his designs, exaggerating his resources, and making such offers of emolument and command, to engage him and the army in his unlawful enterprize, as he had flattered himself would be successful. The general, with the honour of a soldier, and fidelity of a good citizen, immediately dispatched a trusty officer to me with information of what had passed, proceeded to establish such an understanding with the Spanish commandant on the Sabine, as permitted him to withdraw his force across the Missisippi, and to enter on measures for opposing the projected enterprize.

The general's letter, which came to hand on the 25th of November, as has been mentioned, and some other information, received a few days earlier, when brought together, developed Burr's general designs, different parts of which only had been revealed to different informants. It appeared that he contemplated two distinct objects, which might be carried on either jointly or separately, and either the one or the other first as circumstances should direct. One of these was the severance of the union of these states by the Alleghany mountains, the other an attack on Mexico. A third object was provided, merely ostensible, to wit, the settlement of the pretended purchase of a tract of country on the Washita, claimed by a baron Bastrop. This was to serve as the pretext for all his preparations, an allurement for such followers as really wished to acquire settlements in that country, and a cover under which

to retreat in the event of a final discomfiture of both branches of his real designs.

He found at once that the attachment of the western country to the present union was not to be shaken; that its dissolution could not be effected with the consent of the inhabitants; and that his resources were inadequate, as yet, to effect it by force. He took his course then at once, determined to seize on New Orleans, plunder the bank there, possess himself of the military and naval stores, and proceed on his expedition to Mexico, and to this object all his means and preparations were now directed. He collected from all the quarters where himself or his agents possessed influence, all the ardent, restless, desperate, and disaffected persons, who were ready for any enterprize analagous to their characters. He seduced good and well-meaning citizens, some by assurances that he possessed the confidence of the government, and was acting under its secret patronage; a pretence which procured some credit from the state of our differences with Spain; and others by offers of land in Bastrop's claim on the Washita.

This was the state of my information of his proceedings about the last of November; at which time therefore it was first possible to take specific measures to meet them. The proclamation of November 27, two days after the receipt of general Wilkinson's information, was now issued. Orders were dispatched to every interesting point on the Ohio and Missisippi, from Pittsburg to New Orleans, for the employment of such force, either of the regulars or of the militia, and of such proceedings also of the civil authorities, as might enable them to seize on all boats and stores provided for the enterprize, to arrest the persons concerned, and to suppress effectually the further progress of the enterprize. A little before the receipt of these orders in the state of Ohio, our confidential agent, who had been diligently employed in investigating the conspiracy, had acquired sufficient information to open himself to the governor of that state, and to apply for the immediate exertion of the authority and power of the state to crush the combination. Governor Tiffin and the legislature, with a promptitude, an energy, and patriotic zeal, which entitle them to a distinguished place in the affection of their sister states, effected the seizure of all the boats, provisions, and other preparations within their reach, and thus gave a first blow, materially disabling the enterprize in its outset.

In Kentucky, a premature attempt to bring Burr to justice, without sufficient evidence for his conviction, had produced a popular impression in his favour, and a general disbelief of his guilt. This gave him an unfortunate opportunity of hastening his equipments. The arrival of the proclamation and orders, and the application and information of our confidential agent, at length awakened the authorities of that state to the truth, and then produced the same promptitude and energy of which the neighbouring state had set the example. Under an act of their legislature of December 23, militia was instantly ordered to different important points, and measures taken for doing whatever could yet be done. Some

boats (accounts vary from five to double or treble that number) and persons (differently estimated from one to three hundred) had in the mean time passed the falls of Ohio, to rendezvous at the mouth of Cumberland with others expected down that river. Not apprised till very late that any boats were building on Cumberland, the effect of the proclamation has been trusted to for some time in the state of Tennessee. But on the 19th of December similar communications and instructions with those to the neighbouring states were dispatched by express to the governor, and a general officer of the western division of the state, and on the 23d of December our confidential agent left Frankfort for Nashville, to put into activity the means of that state also. But by information received yesterday, I learn that on the 22d of December Mr. Burr descended the Cumberland with two boats, merely of accommodation, carrying with him from that state no quota towards his unlawful enterprize. Whether, after the arrival of the proclamation, of the orders, or of our agent, any exertion which could be made by that state, or the orders of the governor of Kentucky, for calling out the militia at the mouth of Cumberland, would be in time to arrest these boats, and those from the falls of Ohio, is still doubtful.

On the whole, the fugitives from the Ohio, with their associates from Cumberland, or any other place in that quarter, cannot threaten serious danger to the city of New Orleans.

By the same express of December 19, orders were sent to the governors of Orleans and Missisippi, supplementary to those which had been given on the 25th of November, to hold the militia of their territories in readiness to co-operate for their defence with the regular trrops and armed vessels then under command of general Wilkinson. Great alarm indeed was excited at New Orleans, by the exaggerated accounts of Mr. Burr, disseminated through his emissaries, of the armies and navies he was to assemble there. General Wilkinson had arrived there himself on the 24th of November, and had immediately put into activity the resources of the place for the purpose of its defence, and on the 10th of December he was joined by his troops from the Sabine. Great zeal was shown by the inhabitants generally; the merchants of the place readily agreeing to the most laudable exertions and sacrifices for manning the armed vessels with their seamen; and the other citizens manifesting unequivocal fidelity to the union, and a spirit of determined resistance to their expected assailants.

Surmises have been hazarded that this enterprize is to receive aid from certain foreign powers. But these surmises are without proof or probability. The wisdom of the measures sanctioned by congress at its last session has placed us in the paths of peace and justice with the only powers with whom we had any differences; and nothing has happened since, which makes it either their interest or ours to pursue another course. No change of measures has taken place on our part, none ought to take place at this time. With the one, friendly arrangement was proposed, and the law, deemed necessary on the failure of that, was sus-

pended to give time for a fair trial of the issue. With the same power, friendly arrangement is now proceeding, under good expectations, and the same law, deemed necessary on failure of that, is still suspended to give time for a fair trial of the issue. With the other, negotiation was in like manner preferred, and provisional measures only taken to meet the event of rupture. While therefore we do not deflect in the slightest degree from the course we then assumed, and are still pursuing, with mutual consent, to restore a good understanding, we are not to impute to them practices as irreconcileable to interest as to good faith, and changing necessarily the relations of peace and justice between us to those of war. These surmises are therefore to be imputed to the vauntings of the author of this enterprize, to multiply his partizans, by magnifying the belief of his prospects and support.

By letters from general Wilkinson, of the 14th and 18th of December, which came to hand two days after the date of the resolution of the house of representatives, that is to say, on the 18th inst., I received the important affidavit, a copy of which I now communicate, with extracts of so much of the letters as come within the scope of the resolution. By these it will be seen that of three of the principal emissaries of Mr. Burr, whom the general had caused to be apprehended, one had been liberated by *habeas corpus*, and two others, being those particularly employed in the endeavour to corrupt the general and army of the United States, have been embarked by him for ports in the Atlantic states, probably on the consideration that an impartial trial could not be expected during the present agitations of New Orleans, and that that city was not as yet a safe place of confinement. As soon as these persons shall arrive, they will be delivered to the custody of the law, and left to such course of trial, both as to place and process, as its functionaries may direct. The presence of the highest judicial authorities, to be assembled at this place within a few days, the means of pursuing a sounder course of proceedings here than elsewhere, and the aid of the executive means, should the judges have occasion to use them, render it equally desirable for the criminal, as for the public, that, being already removed from the place where they were apprehended, the first regular arrest should take place here, and the course of proceedings receive here their proper direction.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Jan. 22, 1807.

Extract of a Letter from General James Wilkinson, dated New Orleans, Dec. 14, 1806.

After several consultations with the governor and judges, touching the arrest and confinement of certain known agents and emissaries of colonel Burr, in this city and territory, whose intrigues and machinations were to be apprehended, it is with their privity and approbation, that I have caused three of them to be arrested, viz., Dr. Erick Bollman, Samuel Swartwout, and Peter V. Ogden, against whom I possess strong facts, and I have recommended to the governor to have James Alexander,

Esq., taken up on the grounds of strong suspicion. These persons and all others, who, by their character and deportment may be considered hostile to the interests of the United States, or dangerous to this feeble frontier, under the menacing aspect of things from above, will, if my influence can prevail, be seized on and sent by sea to the United States, subject to the disposition of government, and accompanied by such information as may justify their confinement, and furnish a clue to the developement of the grounds, progress, and projectors of the treasonable enterprize in which they are engaged.

This letter will accompany Dr. Bollman, who is to be this day embarked in a vessel bound for Charleston, under the charge of lieutenant Wilson of the artillery, who has orders to land with his prisoner at fort Johnson or fort Moultrie, to forward this dispatch by mail, and to wait the orders of the executive. Mr. Swartwout will be sent to Baltimore by a vessel which will sail some time the ensuing week, in custody of another subaltern, who will be the bearer of strong testimony against him, and also colonel Burr, and the others will follow under due precautions, by the earliest opportunities which may present.

I deem it essential to keep these prisoners apart, to prevent the adjustment of correspondent answers or confessions to any examination which may ensue, and I hope the measures of the executive may be so prompt and efficient as to relieve the officers in charge of them from their trust, before the interposition of the friends of the prisoners may effect their liberation.

By this procedure we may intimidate the confederates, who are unquestionably numerous in this as well as the adjacent territory, disconcert their arrangements, and possibly destroy their intrigues; and I hope the zeal which directs the measure may be justified and approved; for, whilst the glow of patriotism actuates my conduct, and I am willing to offer myself a martyr to the constitution of my country, I should indeed be most grievously disappointed did I incur its censure.

Here, sir, we find the key to the western states, and here we must form one grand depositary and place of arms; combine to this disposition a river fleet competent to its occlusion, and post it thirty or forty leagues above the Yazou river, and we may repose in security; for the discontent and sufferings of our insurgent citizens, which must immediately ensue, will soon open their eyes to the wickedness of their leaders, and work a radical reformation without bloodshed. This is my plan for resisting an internal attack; for external defence, gun-boats and bomb-ketches, with floating batteries at the mouths of the Missisipi and the passes from Lake Ponchartrain, will be necessary.

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Extract of a Letter from General James Wilkinson, dated New Orleans, December 18, 1806.

SIR,

Since my last of the 14th inst., writs of *habeas corpus* have been issued for the bodies of Bollman, Swartwout, and Ogden, the two latter by judge Workman, who is strongly suspected for being concerned with Burr in his conspiracy, as I have proof this man declared

some time since, that "the republican, who possessed power, and did not employ it to establish a despotism, was a fool." His writ for Ogden was served on captain Shaw of the navy, who had him in charge at my request, on board the Etna bomb-ketch, and delivered him up, and Mr. Workman discharged him without giving me a word of information, although he knew he was confined by my order for a treasonable combination with Burr, and Mr. Ogden now struts at large. Swartwout I have sent off, and shall so report, holding myself ready for consequences. Bollman was required by the superior court, but I have got rid of that affair also, under the usual liability for damages, in which case I shall look to our country for protection.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States.

I received from general Wilkinson, on the 23d inst., his affidavit, charging Samuel Swartwout, Peter V. Ogden, and James Alexander with the crimes described in the affidavit, a copy of which is now communicated to both houses of congress.

It was announced to me at the same time, that Swartwout and Bollman, two of the persons apprehended by him, were arrived in this city, in custody each of a military officer. I immediately delivered to the attorney of the United States, in this district, the evidence received against them, with instructions to lay the same before the judges, and apply for their process to bring the accused to justice, and I put into his hands orders to the officers having them in custody, to deliver them to the marshal on his application.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

January 26, 1807.

I, James Wilkinson, brigadier-general and commander in chief of the army of the United States, to warrant the arrest of Dr. Erick Bollman on a charge of treason, misprision of treason, or such other offence against the government and laws of the United States, as the following facts may legally charge him with, on my honour as a soldier, and on the holy evangelists of Almighty God, do declare and swear, that, on the 6th day of November last, when in command at Natchitoches, I received, by the hands of a Frenchman, a stranger to me, a letter from Dr. Erick Bollman, of which the following is a correct copy:

"*New Orleans, Sept.* 27, 1806.

"SIR,

"I have the honour to forward to your excellency the *enclosed letters*, which I was charged to deliver to you by our mutual friend. I shall remain for some time at this place, and should be glad to learn where and when I may have the pleasure of an interview with you. Have the goodness to inform me of it, and please to direct your letter to me, care of ———, or enclose it under cover to them. I have the honour, with great respect, sir, your excellency's most obedient servant,

"ERICK BOLLMAN.

"General Wilkinson."

Covering a communication in cypher from colonel Aaron Burr, of which the following is substantially as fair an interpretation as I have heretofore been able to make, the original of which I still hold in my possession:—I (Aaron Burr) have obtained funds and have actually commenced the enterprize--detachments from different points and under different pretences will rendezvous on the Ohio 1st November—every thing, internal and external, favours views—protection of England is secured—T——* is gone to Jamaica to arrange with the admiral on that station, and will meet at the Missisippi—England—navy of the United States are ready to join, and final orders are given to my friends and followers—it will be a host of choice spirits—Wilkinson shall be second to Burr only—Wilkinson shall dictate the rank and promotion of his officers—*Burr* will proceed westward 1st August --never to return—with him go his daughter—the husband will follow in October with a *corps of worthies*—send forth—with an intelligent and confidential friend with whom Burr may confer.—He shall return immediately with further interesting details—this is essential to concert and harmony of movement. Send a list of all persons known to Wilkinson, west of the mountains, who could be useful, with a note delineating the characters. By your messenger send me four or five of the commissions of your officers, which you can borrow under any pretence you please—They shall be returned faithfully—Already are orders to the contractor given to forward six months provisions to points Wilkinson may name—this shall not be used until the last moment, and then under proper injunctions—the project is brought to the point so long desired—Burr guarantees the result with his life and honour—the lives, the honour and fortunes of hundreds, the best blood of our country—Burr's plan of operations is to move down rapidly from the falls on the 15th of November with the first 500 or 1000 men in light boats now constructing for that purpose—to be at Natchez between the 5th and 15th of December—then to meet Wilkinson—then to determine whether it will be expedient in the first instance to seize on or pass by Baton Rouge—on receipt of this send Burr an answer—draw on Burr for all expences, &c. The people of the country to which we are going are prepared to receive us—their agents now with Burr say that if he will protect their religion, and will not subject them to a foreign power, that in three weeks all will be settled. The gods invite to glory and fortune—it remains to be seen whether we deserve the boon.—The bearer of this goes express to you—he will hand a formed letter of introduction to you from Burr, a copy of which is hereunto subjoined—he is a man of inviolable honour and perfect discretion—formed to execute rather than project—capable of relating facts with fidelity, and incapable of relating them otherwise. He is throughly informed of the plans and intentions of ————, and will disclose to you as far as you inquire, and no farther—he has imbibed a reverence for your character, and may be embarrassed in your presence—put him at ease and he will satisfy you.—Dr. Boll-

* Truxton.

man, equally confidential, better informed on the subject, and more intelligent, will hand you this duplicate—" 29th July."

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The day after my arrival at this city, the 26th of November last, I received another letter from the doctor, of which the following is a correct copy:

"*New Orleans, Nov.* 25, 1806.

"SIR,

"Your letter of the 5th inst. has been duly received. Supposing that you will be much engaged this morning, I defer waiting on your excellency till you will be pleased to inform me of the time when it will be convenient to you to see me. I remain, with great respect, your excellency's most obedient servant,

"ERICK BOLLMAN.

"His excellency general Wilkinson, Fauxbourg, Marigny, the house between madame Trevinge and M. Macarty."

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On the 30th of the same month I waited in person on Dr. E. Bollman, when he informed me that he had not heard from colonel Burr since his arrival here; that he (said Dr. E. Bollman) had sent dispatches to colonel Burr by a lieutenant Spence of the navy, and that he had been advised of Spence's arrival at Nashville, in the state of Tennessee; and observed that colonel Burr had proceeded too far to retreat: that he (colonel Burr) had numerous and powerful friends in the United States, who stood pledged to support him with their fortunes, and that he must succeed. That he, the said Dr. E. Bollman, had written to colonel Burr on the subject of provisions, and that he expected a supply would be sent from New York, and also from Norfolk, where colonel Burr had strong connections. I did not see or hear from the doctor again until the 5th inst., when I called on him the second time. The mail being arrived the day before, I asked him whether he had received any intelligence from colonel Burr. He informed me that he had seen a letter from colonel Burr of the 30th of October, in which he (colonel Burr) gave assurances that he should be at Natches with 2000 men on the 20th of December inst., where he should wait until he heard from this place. That he would be followed by 4000 more, and that he (colonel Burr), if he had chosen, could have raised or got 12,000 as easy as 6000, but that he did not think that number necessary.

Confiding fully in this information, I became indifferent about further disguise. I then told the doctor that I should most certainly oppose colonel Burr if he came this way. He replied, they must come here for equipments and shipping, and observed that he did not know what had passed between colonel Burr and myself, obliqued at a sham defence, and waved the subject.

From the documents in my possession, and the several communications, verbal as well as written, from the said Dr. Erick Bollman on this subject, I feel no hesitation in declaring, under the solemn obligation of an oath, that he has committed misprision of treason against the government of the United States.

JAMES WILKINSON.

Signed and sworn to this 14th

day of December, 1806, before me, one of the justices of the peace of this county.

J. CARRICK.

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Philadelphia, July 25, 1806.

DEAR SIR,

Mr. Swartwout, the brother of col. S. of New-York, being on his way down the Missisippi, and presuming he may pass you at some post on the river, has requested of me a letter of introduction, which I give with pleasure, as he is a most amiable young man, and highly respectable from his character and connexions. I pray you to afford him friendly offices, which his situation may require, and beg you to pardon the trouble which this may give you. With entire respect, your friend and obedient servant,

A. BURR.

His excellency general Wilkinson.

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I instantly resolved to avail myself of the reference made to the bearer, and in the course of some days drew from him (the said Swartwout) the following disclosure: "That he had been dispatched by colonel Burr from Philadelphia, had passed through the states of Ohio and Kentucky, and proceeded from Louisville for St. Louis, where he expected to find me, but discovering at Kaskaskias that I had descended the river, he procured a skiff, hired hands, and followed me down the Missisippi to Fort Adams, and from thence set out for Natchitoches, in company with captains Sparks and Hooke, under the pretence of a disposition to take part in the campaign against the Spaniards, then depending. That colonel Burr, with the support of a powerful association, extending from New York to New Orleans, was levying an armed body of 7000 men from the state of New York and the western states and territories, with a view to carry an expedition against the Mexican provinces, and that 500 men under colonel Swartwout, and a colonel or major Tyler, were to descend the Alleghany, for whose accommodation light boats had been built, and were ready." I enquired what would be their course; he said, "this territory would be revolutionized, where the people were ready to join them, and that there would be some seizing, he supposed, at New Orleans; that they expected to be ready to embark about the first of February, and intended to land at Vera Cruz, and to march from thence to Mexico." I observed that there were several millions of dollars in the bank of that place; to which he replied, "We know it full well;" and on my remarking that they certainly did not mean to violate property, he said they "merely meant to borrow, and would return it; that they must equip themselves in New Orleans; that they expected naval protection from Great Britain; that the capt. —— and the officers of our navy were so disgusted with the government, that they were ready to join; that similar disgusts prevailed throughout the western country, where the people were zealous in favour of the enterprize, and that pilot-boat-built schooners were contracted for along our southern coast for their

service; that he had been accompanied from the falls of Ohio to Kaskaskias, and from thence to Fort Adams, by a Mr. Ogden, who had proceeded on to New Orleans with letters from colonel Burr to his friend there." Swartwout asked me whether I had heard from Dr. Bollman; and on my answering in the negative, he expressed great surprise, and observed, "That the doctor and a Mr. Alexander had left Philadelphia before him, with dispatches for me, and that they were to proceed by sea to New Orleans, where he said they must have arrived."

Though determined to deceive him if possible, I could not refrain telling Mr. Swartwout it was impossible that I could dishonour my commission; and I believe I duped him by my admiration of the plan, and by observing, "that although I could not join in the expedition, the engagements which the Spaniards had prepared for me, in my front, might prevent my opposing it." Yet I did, the moment I had decyphered the letter, put it into the hands of colonel Cushing, my adjutant and inspector, making the declaration that I should oppose the lawless enterprize with my utmost force. Mr. Swartwout informed me he was under engagements to meet colonel Burr at Nashville the 20th of November, and requested me to write him, which I declined; and on his leaving Natchitoches about the 18th of October, I immediately employed lieutenant T. A. Smith to convey the information in substance to the president, without the commitment of names; for, from the extraordinary nature of the project, and the more extraordinary appeal to me, I could not but doubt its reality, notwithstanding the testimony before me, and I did not attach solid belief to Mr. Swartwout's reports respecting their intentions on this territory and city, until I received confirmatory advice from St. Louis.

After my return from the Sabine, I crossed the country to Natchez, and on my descent of the Missisippi from that place I found Swartwout and Peter V. Ogden at Fort Adams; with the latter I held no communication, but was informed by Swartwout, that he, Ogden, had returned so far from New Orleans, on his rout to Tennessee, but had been so much alarmed by certain reports in circulation, that he was afraid to proceed. I enquired whether he bore letters with him from New Orleans, and was informed by Swartwout that he did not, but that a Mr. Spence had been sent from New-Orleans through the country to Nashville, with letters for colonel Burr.

I reached this city the 25th ultimo, and on the next morning James Alexander, Esq., visited me. He enquired of me aside whether I had seen Dr. Bollman, and on my answering in the negative, he asked me whether I would suffer him to conduct Bollman to me, which I refused. He appeared desirous of communicating something, but I felt no inclination to inculpate this young man, and he left me. A few days after he paid me a second visit, and seemed desirous to communicate, which I avoided, until he had risen to take leave; I then raised my finger, and observed, "Take care, you are playing a dangerous game;" he answered, "It will succeed." I again observed,

"Take care;" and he replied with a strong affirmation, "Burr will be here by the beginning of next month." In addition to these corroborating circumstances against Alexander, I beg leave to refer to the accompanying documents, A, B. From all which I feel no hesitation in declaring, under a solemn obligation of an oath, that I do believe the said Swartwout, Alexander, and Ogden have been parties to, and have been concerned in the insurrection formed or forming in the states and territories on the Ohio and Missisippi rivers, against the laws and constitution of the United States.

JAMES WILKINSON.

Sworn to and subscribed before me, this 26th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1806.

GEORGE POLLOCK,
Justice of the Peace, for the County of Orleans.

Deposition of William Eaton, Esq., in the Circuit Court of the District of Columbia.

Early last winter, colonel Aaron Burr, late vice-president of the United States, signified to me, at this place, that, under the authority of the general government, he was organizing a secret expedition against the Spanish provinces on our south-western borders; which expedition he was to lead, and in which he was authorized to invite me to take the command of a division. I had never before been made personally acquainted with colonel Burr; and, having many years been employed in foreign service, I knew but little about the estimation this gentleman now held in the opinion of his countrymen and his government; the rank and confidence by which he had so lately been distinguished left me no right to suspect his patriotism. I knew him a soldier. In case of a war with the Spanish nation, which from the tenor of the president's message to both houses of congress seemed probable, I should have thought it my duty to obey so honourable a call of my country: and under that impression I did engage to embark in the expedition. I had frequent interviews with colonel Burr in this city, and, for a considerable time, his object seemed to be to instruct me by maps, and other information, the feasibility of penetrating to Mexico, always carrying forward the idea that the measure was authorized by goverment. At length, some time in February, he began by degrees to unveil himself. He reproached the government with want of character, want of gratitude, and want of justice. He seemed desirous of irritating resentment in my breast by dilating on certain injuries he felt I had suffered from reflections made on the floor of the house of representatives, concerning my operations in Barbary, and from the delays of government in adjusting my claims for disbursements on that coast during my consular agency at Tunis; and he would point to me an honourable mode of indemnity. I now began to entertain a suspicion that Mr. Burr was projecting an unauthorized military expedition, which to me was enveloped in mystery, and, desirous to draw an explanation from him, I suffered him to suppose me resigned to his council. He now laid open his project of revolutionizing the western coun-

try, separating it from the union, establishing a monarchy there, of which he was to be the sovereign, New Orleans to be his capital, organizing a force on the waters of the Missisippi, and extending conquest to Mexico. I suggested a number of impediments to his scheme; such as the republican habits of the citizens of that country, and their affection towards our present administration of government; the want of funds; the resistance he would meet from the regular army of the United States on those frontiers; and the opposition of Miranda, in case he should succeed to republicanize the Mexicans.

Mr. Burr found no difficulty in removing those obstacles. He said he had, the preceding season, made a tour through that country, and had secured the attachment of the principal citizens of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Louisiana, to his person and his measures; declared he had inexhaustible resources as to funds; assured me the regular army would act with him, and would be reinforced by ten or twelve thousand men from the above-mentioned states and territory, and from other parts of the union; said he had powerful agents in the Spanish territory; and, as for Miranda, said Mr. Burr, we must hang Miranda. He now proposed to give me the second command in his army. I asked him who should have the chief command? He said *general Wilkinson*. I observed it was singular that he should count on general Wilkinson; the elevated rank and high trust he now held as commander in chief of our army, and governor of a province, he would hardly put at hazard for any precarious prospect of aggrandizement. Mr. Burr said, general Wilkinson balanced in the confidence of government, was doubtful of retaining much longer the consideration he now enjoyed, and was consequently prepared to secure himself a permanency.

I asked Mr. Burr if he knew general Wilkinson? He answered yes: and echoed the question. I said I knew him well. "What do you know of him?" said Mr. Burr; I know, I replied, that general Wilkinson will act as *lieutenant* to no man in existence. "You are in an error," said Mr. Burr, "*Wilkinson will act as lieutenant to me.*" From the tenor of repeated conversations with Mr. Burr, I was induced to believe the plan of separating the union which he had contemplated had been communicated to and approved of by general Wilkinson (though I now suspect it an artful argument of seduction), and he often expressed a full confidence that the general's influence, the offer of double pay and double rations, the prospect of plunder, and the ambition of achievement, would draw the army into his measures. Mr. Burr talked of the establishment of an independent government west of the Alleghany as a matter of inherent constitutional right of the people: a change which would eventually take place, and for the operation of which the present crisis was peculiarly favourable. There was, said he, no energy in the government to be dreaded, and the divisions of political opinions throughout the union was a circumstance of which we should profit. There were very many enterprising men among us who aspired to something beyond the dull pursuits of civil life, and who would volunteer

in this enterprize, and the vast territory belonging to the United States, which offered to adventurers, and the mines of Mexico, would bring strength to his standard from all quarters. I listened to the exposition of colonel Burr's views with seeming acquiescence. Every interview convinced me more and more that he had organized a deep-laid plot of treason in the west, in the accomplishment of which he felt fully confident. Till at length I discovered that his ambition was not bounded by the waters of the Missisippi and Mexico, but that he meditated overthrowing the present government of our country. He said, if he could gain over the marine corps, and secure the naval commanders, Truxton, Preble, Decatur, and others, *he would turn congress neck and heels out of doors; assassinate the president; seize on the treasury and navy, and declare himself the protector of an energetic government.*

The honourable trust of corrupting the marine corps, and of sounding commodore Preble and captain Decatur, colonel Burr proposed confiding to me. Shocked at this proposition, I dropped the mask, and exclaimed against his views. He talked of the degraded situation of our country, and the necessity of a *blow*, by which its energy and its dignity should be restored; said, if that blow could be struck here at this time, he was confident of the best blood of America. I told colonel Burr he deceived himself in presuming that he, or any other man, could excite a party in this country who would countenance him in such a plot of desperation, murder, and treason. He replied, that he, perhaps, knew better the dispositions of the influential citizens of this country than I did. I told him one solitary word would destroy him. He asked, what word? I answered, *Usurper!* He smiled at my hesitation, and quoted some great examples in his favour. I observed to him, that I had lately travelled from one extreme of the union to the other; and, though I found a diversity of political opinion among the people, they appeared united at the most distant aspect of national danger. That, for the section of the union to which I belonged, I would vouch, should he succeed in the first instance here, he would, within six weeks afterward, have his throat cut by Yankee militia.

Though wild and extravagant Mr. Burr's last project, and though fraught with premeditated slaughter, I felt very easy on the subject, because its defeat he had deposited in my own hands. I did not feel so secure concerning that of disjointing the union. But the very interesting and embarrassing situation in which his communications placed me, left me, I confess, at a stand to know how to conduct myself with propriety. He had committed no overt act of aggression against law. I could draw nothing from him in writing; nor could I learn that he had exposed his plans to any person near me, by whom my testimony could be supported. He had mentioned to me no persons who were principally and decidedly engaged with him, except general Wilkinson, a Mr. Alston, who I found was his son-in-law, and a Mr. Ephraim Kibby, late a captain of rangers in general Wayne's army.

Satisfied that Mr. Burr was re-

solute in pushing his project of rebellion in the west of the Alleghany, and apprehensive that it was too well and too extensively organized to be easily suppressed; though I dreaded the weight of his character when laid in the balance against my solitary assertion, I brought myself to the resolution to endeavour to defeat it by getting him removed from among us, or to expose myself to all consequences by a disclosure of his intentions.

Accordingly, I waited on the president of the United States, and, after some desultory conversation, in which I aimed to draw his view to the westward, I used the freedom to say to the president I thought Mr. Burr should be sent out of the country; and gave for reason, that I believed him dangerous in it. The president asked where he should be sent? I mentioned London and Cadiz. The president thought the trust too important, and seemed to entertain a doubt of Mr. Burr's integrity. I intimated that no one, perhaps, had stronger grounds to mistrust Mr. Burr's moral integrity, than myself; yet, I believed, ambition so much predominated over him, that, when placed on an eminence and put on his honour, respect to himself would insure his fidelity: his talents were unquestionable. I perceived the subject was disagreeable to the president; and to give it the shortest course to the point, declared my concern that if Mr. Burr were not in some way disposed of, we should, within eighteen months, have an insurrection, if not a revolution on the waters of the Missisippi. The president answered, that he had too much confidence in the information, the integrity, and the attachment to the union of the citizens of that country to admit an apprehension of the kind: I am happy that events prove this confidence well placed. As no interrogatories followed my expression of alarm, I thought silence on the subject, at that time and place, became me.

But I detailed, about the same time, the whole project of Mr. Burr to certain members of congress. They believed colonel Burr capable of any thing, and agreed that the fellow ought to be hanged; but thought his projects too chimerical and his circumstances too desperate to give the subject the merit of serious consideration. The total security of feeling in those to whom I had rung the tocsin induced me to suspect my own apprehensions unseasonable, or at least too deeply admitted; and, of course, I grew indifferent about the subject.

Mr. Burr's visits to me became less frequent, and his conversation less familiar. He appeared to have abandoned the idea of a general revolution; but seemed determined on that of the Missisippi; and, although I could perceive symptoms of distrust in him towards me, he manifested great solicitude to engage me with him in the enterprize. Weary of his importunity, and at once to convince him of my serious attachments, I gave the following toast to the public:

"The UNITED STATES—Palsey to the brain that should plot to dismember, and leprosy to the hand that will not draw to defend our union!"

I doubt whether the sentiment was better understood by any of my acquaintance than by colonel Burr. Our intercourse ended here; we met but seldom afterward. I returned to my farm in Massachusetts, and thought no more of Mr. Burr nor his empire, till some time late in September or beginning of October, when a letter from Morris Belknap, of Marietta, to Timothy E. Danielson, fell into my hands at Brimfield, which satisfied me that Mr. Burr had actually commenced his preparatory operations on the Ohio. I now spoke publicly of the fact, transmitted a copy of the letter from Belknap to the department of state, and about the same time forwarded, through the hands of the post-master-general, to the president of the United States, a statement in substance of what is here above detailed concerning the Mississippi conspiracy of colonel Aaron Burr, which is said to have been the first formal intelligence received by the executive on the subject of the conspirator being in motion.

I know not whether my country will allow me the merit of correctness of conduct in this affair. The novelty of the duty might, perhaps, have embarrassed stronger minds than mine. The uprightness of my intention, I hope, will not be questioned.

The interviews between colonel Burr and myself, from which the foregoing statement has resulted, were chiefly in this city, in the months of February and March, last year.

Washington City, Jan. 26.

WILLIAM EATON.

Sworn to in open court, this 26th of January, 1807.

WM. BRENT, *Clerk.*

Deposition of James L. Donaldson.

In open court personally appears James Lowry Donaldson, who, being duly sworn, deposeth and saith, that he was in the city of New Orleans, in the Orleans territory, and the environs of said city, from the 15th of October to the 10th day of December, 1806; that during the latter part of this time he was frequently in the company of general James Wilkinson, and visited the general the day after his arrival at New Orleans. On this occasion this deponent received in confidence from general Wilkinson information to the following purport:—That the general had undoubted and indisputable evidence of a treasonable design formed by Aaron Burr and others to dismember the union by a separation of the western states and territories from the Atlantic states; that New Orleans was in immediate danger, and that he had concluded a hasty compromise with the Spaniards, so as to be able to withdraw his troops instantly to this the immediate object of attack and great vulnerable point; that he had received a letter from Burr holding forth great inducements to him to become a party, of which he showed me the original in cypher, and another written paper purporting to be a decyphered copy of the letter. He expressed great indignation at the plot, and surprize that one so well acquainted with him as Burr should dare to make to him so degrading a proposal, and declared his determination of defeating the enterprize, or perishing in the attempt. He observed, in addition, that there were many agents of Mr. Burr then in the town; who

had already been assiduous in their visits, and towards whom he was determined to act with cautious ambiguity, so as at the same time to become possessed of the whole extent of the plan, the persons engaged, and the time of its execution, and also to prevent any attempt on his person, of which he declared he had serious apprehensions. Of the number of these agents he was not aware, but mentioned the names of two, of whom he was certain, Messrs. Bollman and Alexander. From time to time, as this deponent had interviews with general Wilkinson, he informed this deponent that he had received additional information respecting the movements and designs of Burr, by means of these agents, of whom he considered Bollman as the principal. In the course of these transactions, this deponent was employed by general Wilkinson in the copying of certain papers and documents, and preparing certain dispatches for the general government, which the general intended to forward by the brig Thetis. While thus employed at the general's lodgings, this deponent has remarked, upon two different occasions, a person knock for admittance at a door with a window in it, opposite the table where this deponent was sitting, who, this deponent was informed by general Wilkinson, was Dr. Bollman. Upon these occasions the general had suddenly risen from his seat, and accompanied this person in a number of turns up and down a balcony in the front of the house, apparently engaged in deep conversation. Upon the latter of these occasions the general on his return into the chamber said to this deponent, "that is Dr. Bollman; his infatuation is truly extraordinary; he persists in his belief that I am with Burr, and has this moment shown me a letter from the latter, in which he says that he is to be at Natchez on the 20th December with two thousand men, that four thousand will follow in the course of a few days, and that he could, with the same ease, have procured double that number." General Wilkinson then observed that he had obtained all the information he wanted, and that the affair would not be kept much longer a secret from the public.

When this deponent left the city of New Orleans, the inhabitants of that city were in a state of great alarm, and apprehended a serious attack from Mr. Burr and his confederates: this deponent understood that mercantile business was much embarrassed, and great fears were entertained of considerable commercial failures, in consequence of the embargo which had been imposed; that general Wilkinson was taking strong measures of defence, and that four hundred persons were then actually engaged in the fortifications of the city.

And further this deponent saith not.

JAMES L. DONALDSON.

Sworn to in open court, January 26, 1807.

WM. BRENT, *Clerk.*

Deposition of Lieutenant W. Wilson.

I left New Orleans, on my way to this city, on the 15th of December last; at that time, and for some time preceding, the strongest apprehensions and belief universally prevailed among the in-

habitants of that city, that Aaron Burr and his confederates had prepared an armed force, and were advancing to attack and plunder the city; in consequence of which the greatest alarms prevailed, a general stagnation of business, and the danger was credited there as a matter of public notoriety: that brigadier-general Wilkinson, with the army of the United States, was at New Orleans, occupied in the most active military preparations for the defence of the place; repairing the forts, mounting cannon, collecting ammunition, &c., all under the firm persuasion and belief that such an attack was meditated, and about very speedily to take place, by the said Burr and his confederates; this deponent knows that the general was decidedly of opinion, from the most satisfactory information, that the said Burr and his confederates were advancing with an armed force against the place; and further this deponent saith not.

WM. WILSON.

Sworn to in open court, this 27th day of January, 1807.

WM. BRENT, *Clerk.*

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States.

I communicate, for the information of congress, a letter from Cowles Meade, secretary of the Missisippi territory, to the secretary of war, by which it will be seen that Mr. Burr had reached that neighbourhood on the 13th of January.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

February 10, 1807.

Extract of a Letter from Cowles Meade, Secretary and acting Governor of the Missisippi Territory, to the Department of War, dated Washington, M. T., January 13, 1807.

SIR,

I have just time by the mail to inform you that I received this morning a letter from colonel Burr, at Bayou Pierre, avowing the innocence of his views, and the fallacy of certain rumours against his patriotism. His object is agriculture, and his boats are the vehicles of emigration. However, several military corps were ordered to be on the alert, and apprehend him and all suspicious persons on the day before the reception of this letter: these orders may possibly bring him into my possession. In his letter he hints at resistance to any attempt to coerce him, and deprecates a civil war. These hints will have no influence on my conduct. He will be apprehended, if possible, at the hazard of the lives of our militia, and the honour of the executive. We are all bustle and activity. I hope in a day or two to give you a better account of this troublesome man.

A boat passed Natchez last night; was hailed and pursued by the guard; they fired two guns at the pursuers, and made their escape, being better manned.

The citizens of this country are republicans and patriots, and on their exertions I have every reliance.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States.

I transmit to congress a letter from our ministers plenipotentiary at London, informing us that they have agreed with the British commissioners to conclude a treaty on all the points which had formed the object of their negotiation, and on terms which they trusted we would approve.

Also, a letter from our minister plenipotentiary at Paris, covering one to him from the minister of marine of that government, assuring him that the imperial decree lately passed was not to affect our commerce, which would still be governed by the rules of the treaty established between the two countries.

Also, a letter from Cowles Mead, secretary of the Missisippi territory, acting as governor, informing us that Aaron Burr had surrendered himself to the civil authority of that territory.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

February 19, 1807.

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London, Dec. 27, 1806.

SIR,

We have the pleasure to acquaint you, that we have this day agreed with the British commissioners to conclude a treaty on all the points which have formed the object of our negotiation, and on terms which we trust our government will approve. It will require only a few days to reduce it to form. When that is done, we shall transmit it to you by a special messenger. We hasten to communicate to you this interesting intelligence, for the information and guidance of our government in such measures as may have reference to the subject. We have the honour to be, with great consideration and esteem,

SIR,

Your most obedient servants,

JAMES MONROE.

WILLIAM PINKNEY.

James Madison, Secretary of State, Washington.

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SIR, *Paris, Dec.* 24, 1806.

I have the honour of transmitting the copy inclosed of a letter from his majesty's minister of marine and colonies, in answer to mine of the 10th inst. on the subject of the imperial arrette of the 21st of November, 1806.

An additional explanation, which it may be well to communicate, is, that neutral vessels coming from England or her colonies into the ports of France,&c., since the date of the aforesaid arrette, will not be received, and that if any person or persons, charged with the ship or other vessel and cargo, shall be detected in evading this regulation by means of *false declarations*, they shall forfeit the said ship or other vessel and cargo.

I am, sir,

With the highest respect,

Your most obedient and

Very humble servant,

JOHN ARMSTRONG.

Mr. Madison, Washington.

—

General Armstrong to the Minister of Marine and Colonies.

The undersigned minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America has the honour of demanding from his excellen-

cy, the minister of the marine and colonies, the official explanation which may have been given to the imperial decree of November 21, 1806, so far as that decree involves the right of neutral nations.

The undersigned would more particularly wish to be informed whether by "British islands," mentioned in article 1, are to be understood *all islands* in the possession of his Britannic majesty, and *islands merely*; or whether the rule will be so construed as to extend the blockade to the continental possessions also, of his majesty?

Whether it be meant the arrette shall operate from its date, and that seizures made under it before notice shall have been given, shall be considered legal?

Whether American vessels, navigating the high or narrow seas, shall be liable to seizure, on evidence only that they are going to or returning from a port or ports of his Britannic majesty?

And whether articles 2 and 5 shall operate only as domestic regulations, or whether their injunctions shall extend to citizens of foreign and independent nations?

His excellency the minister of marine is sufficiently aware of the interest of the United States in the interpretation which shall be given to these articles, and will readily and justly appreciate the motives of the undersigned in requesting that his excellency's answer may be given as promptly as possible.

The undersigned has the honour of renewing, &c.

JOHN ARMSTRONG.

Paris, December 10, 1806.

Translation.

Paris, Dec. 24, 1806.

Mr. Minister Plenipotentiary,

I hasten to answer the note you did me the honour to address to me on the 20th of this month.

I consider the imperial decree, of the 21st of November last, as thus far conveying no modification of the regulations at present observed in France with regard to neutral navigators, nor consequently of the convention of the 30th of September, 1800 (8th Vendemaire, 9th year), with the United States of America.

But although, by this answer, the four questions upon which your excellency has desired to know my opinion, have been implicitly resolved, I think I can add, 1st, That the declaration expressed by the 1st article of the decree of the 21st November not at all changing the present French laws concerning maritime captures, there is no reason for inquiring what interpretation, or restriction, or extension may be given to this article

2d. That seizures contrary to the present regulations concerning the cruizing shall not be allowed to the captors.

3d. That an American vessel cannot be taken at sea for the mere reason that she is going to a port of England, or is returning from one, because, conformable with the 7th article of the said decree, we are limited in France not to admit vessels coming from England or the English colonies.

4th. That the provisions of articles 2d and 5th of the said decree naturally apply to foreign citizens domiciliated in France, or in countries occupied by the

troops of his majesty the emperor and king, inasmuch as they have the character of general law; but that it will be proper that your excellency should communicate with the minister of exterior relations as to what concerns the correspondence of the citizens of the United States of America with England.

I pray your excellency, Mr. minister plenipotentiary, to receive the assurance of my high consideration. The minister of marine and of the colonies,

DACRES.

It will not escape general Armstrong, that my answers cannot have the developement which they would receive from the minister of exterior relations, and that it is naturally to him he ought to address himself for these explanations, which I am very happy to find him, because he wishes them, but upon which I have much less positive information than the prince of Benevento.

DACRES.

Faithfully translated,

J. WAGNER.
Ch. Clk. Dep. of State.

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Extract of a letter from Cowles Meade, secretary and acting governor of the Mississippi territory, to the department of war, dated Washington, M. T., January 19, 1807.

SIR,

In obedience to your instructions by express of the 20th of December last, I immediately, after proroguing the legislature, proceeded to put the territory in a state of preparation for the arrestation of the suspicious persons and boats, which were contemplated therein; my militia were collecting at particular points on the river, when I received a letter from col. Burr, who had landed at Bayou Pierre, with nine boats and about one hundred men. This letter went to an avowal of his innocence of the charges, which rumour and public apprehension had announced against him, and solicited me to appease the fears which his approach had begotten; at the same time he guarded me against the horrors of civil war, and the evils resulting from such a state of things; this seeming threat induced me to adopt a different mode of conduct, from what the colonel might have expected; and, instead of adopting this pacific admonition, I ordered a very lage portion of the militia of the territory to rendezvous at certain points, and wait further orders. With the promptitude of Spartans, our fellow-citizens shouldered their firelocks, and in 24 hours I had the honour to review three hundred and seventy-five men at Natchez, prepared to defend their country. They were ordered, under the command of col. Claiborne, to a point on the river about twenty-one miles above the city, there to remain to guard the river, and intercept for inspection all boats that might descend the river. On the 16th I dispatched two of my aids to col. Burr, who had tendered his respect to the civil authority; these gentlemen engaged on my part to give the colonel an interview in the neighbourhood of the detachment stationed

at the mouth of Cole's creek.—Conformably thereto I met the colonel on the 17th, and after a lengthy interview he offered to surrender himself to the civil authority of the territory, and to suffer his boats to be searched. On the 18th, col. Burr, accompanied by my aids, majors Shields and Poindexter, rode down to the place, and was committed to the highest tribunal of the civil authority, where he now remains for trial.

Four gentlemen of unquestionable respectability, with a detachment of thirty men, are now in the act of making the search of the boats, and to-morrow I expect their report.

Thus, sir, this mighty alarm, with all its exaggerations, has eventuated in nine boats and one hundred men, and the major part of these are boys, or young men just from school. Many of their depositions have been taken before judge Rodney, but they bespeak ignorance of the views or designs of the colonel. I believe them really ignorant and deluded. I believe that they are the dupes of stratagem, if the asseverations of generals Eaton and Wilkinson, are to be accredited.

PROCLAMATION, BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Whereas, by an act entitled "An act to extend the operation of an act entitled an act to prohibit the importation of certain goods, wares, and merchandize, and to remit the penalties incurred under the same," the president of the United States is authorized further to suspend the operations of the said prohibitory act, if in his judgment the public interest should require it: *Provided*, that such suspension shall not extend beyond the second Monday in December next. *And whereas* it is judged for the public interest that such suspension should take place; Now, therefore, be it known, that I, Thomas Jefferson, president of the United States, by virtue of the authority aforesaid, do hereby suspend the operation of the act entitled "An act to prohibit the importation of certain goods, wares and merchandize," passed on the 18th day of April, one thousand eight hundred and six, until the second Monday of December next.

In testimony whereof, &c.,

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

By the president,

JAMES MADISON,
Secretary of State.

FOREIGN

STATE PAPERS.

DECLARATION OF GREAT BRITAIN, ON THE FAILURE OF THE NEGOTIATION WITH FRANCE.

THE negotiations in which his majesty had been engaged with France having terminated unsuccessfully, his majesty thinks proper to make this public declaration to his subjects and to Europe, of the circumstances which have led to an issue which his majesty deeply regrets. He has no object nearer to his heart than the conclusion of a secure and permanent peace. He laments the continuance of a war affecting the happiness of so many nations, and which, even amidst all the successes that attend his arms, is so burthensome to his faithful and affectionate people. But he is confident that there can arise on this occasion no other sentiment, either in his own dominions, or in any other part of Europe, than that of an increased conviction, that the restoration of general tranquillity is retarded only by the injustice and ambition of the enemy.

The French government, unsatisfied with its immense acquisitions on the continent, still perseveres in a system hostile to the independence of every other power. War is pursued, not for security, but for conquest; and negotiations for peace appear to be entered into for no other object than that of deluding the neighbouring powers into a state of false security, while France is herself preparing, arranging, and executing her unremitted projects of encroachment and aggression.

Her conduct in the recent discussions has afforded but too many proofs of this disposition.

The negotiation originated in an offer made by the French government of treating for peace on the basis of actual possession, which was stated to admit of mu-

tual compensation; and a distinct assurance was added, that his majesty's German dominions, which had been attacked without even the pretence of any cause of hostility, should be restored.

Such a proposal appeared to his majesty to afford a just foundation for negotiating; it was therefore accepted, with this reserve, that the negotiation should be conducted by his majesty in concert with his allies.

No sooner had this business been mutually admitted, than it was departed from by the enemy, and that too in points of so great importance as to call for an immediate declaration on the part of his majesty, that unless the principle proposed by France herself were adhered to, the communications which had been opened between the two governments must at once be closed.

This produced new professions of the disposition of France to make considerable sacrifices for the attainment of peace, if the discussions were suffered to proceed; at the same time that a difficulty was started on account of the want of full powers in the person intrusted by his majesty with this communication. Steps were thereupon taken by his majesty for opening a regular negotiation by ministers duly authorized, in order to ascertain, in a manner the most satisfactory and authentic, whether peace could be obtained on terms honourable to the king and his allies, and consistent with the general security of Europe.

During these proceedings, a minister, sent by the emperor of Russia to treat for the same important object, in concert with his majesty's government, was induced, by the artifices of the enemy, to sign a separate treaty on terms equally repugnant to the honour and interests of his imperial majesty.

Unmoved by this unexpected event, the king continued to negotiate precisely on the same principles as before: he relied, and with a confidence which experience has amply justified, on the good faith and steadiness of an ally, in concert with whom he had begun to treat, and whose interests he had maintained throughout with the same firmness as his own.

The French government, on the contrary, elated by this advantage, of which it boasted as equal in importance to the most decisive victory, departed in every conference more and more widely from its own offers and engagements. Not only did it take upon itself to change at its own will the basis of the negotiation with Great Britain, but it violated, in points still more important, every principle of good faith with Russia. The chief inducement offered to that power, as the price of all the sacrifices extorted from her minister, had been the preservation of Germany. Yet, before the decision of Russia on this treaty could be known, France had already annihilated the whole frame and constitution of the Germanic empire; had reduced under her yoke a large proportion of the states and provinces of Germany; and, not content with this open contempt of obligations so recently contracted, had at the same time instigated the Porte to measures directly subversive of her subsisting engagements with Russia.

While such conduct was pursued towards his majesty, towards his allies, and towards all indepen-

dent powers, there appeared so little hope for any favourable issue to the negotiation, that his majesty's plenipotentiaries demanded their passports to return to England.

This demand was at first eluded by an unusual and unexplained delay, and the French government afterwards, by some material concessions, accompanied with intimations that others of still greater consequence might be the result of further discussion, procured a renewal of the conferences, which were protracted from day to day, till at length it was announced at Paris that the emperor of Russia had indignantly rejected the unauthorized and separate treaty signed by his minister.

In consequence of this important event, the strongest assurances were given to his majesty's minister, that France was now prepared to make sacrifices to a great extent, in order, by securing peace with Great Britain, to re-establish the tranquillity of the world.

The object of these assurances appeared, however, to be, that of engaging his majesty in a separate negotiation, to the exclusion of his allies, a proposal which his majesty had rejected in the outset, and which he could still less admit of at a time when the conduct of Russia had imposed on him an increased obligation not to separate his interests from those of so faithful an ally. To these insidious overtures, his majesty steadily refused to listen; but he took the most effectual method to avoid all appearance of delay, and to accelerate, if possible, the favourable issue of the negotiation. The confidential intercourse which he had constantly maintained with Russia enabled his majesty to specify the terms on which peace with that power might be obtained; and his minister was accordingly instructed to state to France, in addition to his own demands, those of his ally, to reduce them into distinct articles, and even to conclude on those grounds a provisional treaty, to take effect whenever Russia should signify her accession.

This form of negotiation was, after some objection, acceded to by France. Terms were now offered to his majesty more nearly approaching than before the original basis of negotiation; but these were still far short of what his majesty had uniformly insisted on, and was now more than ever entitled to expect; and the decisive rejection of the just demands of Russia, as well as of the conditions proposed by his majesty in behalf of his other allies, left to his majesty no other course than that of ordering his minister to terminate the discussion, and return to England.

The foregoing short and simple exposition of facts stands in need of no comment. The first overtures which led to negotiation were made by the enemy, and they were accepted by his majesty in the sincerest spirit of peace. Every opening which seemed to afford the most distant prospect of ac commodation has been anxiously embraced, nor was the negotiation finally broken off while any hope of a favourable issue could be entertained. His majesty's demands were uniformly just and reasonable; directed to no objects of personal aggrandizement, but to such only as were indispensably required by the honour of his crown, his

engagements to his allies, and a due consideration of the general interests of Europe.

It is with heartfelt concern that his majesty contemplates the continuance of those evils always inseparable from a state of war; but it is with his enemies that this awful responsibility rests; and for the issue of the contest his majesty trusts, with confidence, to the justice of his cause; to the resources and bravery of his people; to the fidelity of his allies, and, above all, to the protection and support of the Divine Providence.

In contributing to the great efforts which such a contest must unavoidably require, his faithful and affectionate subjects will not forget that all their dearest interests are at stake; that no sacrifices they can be called upon to make are to be compared with the certain disgrace and ruin of yielding to the injurious pretensions of the enemy; that with the inviolable maintenance of the good faith and public honour of their country, its prosperity, its strength, and its independence, are essentially connected; and that in asserting the rights and upholding the dignity of the British empire, they defend the most powerful bulwark of the liberties of mankind.

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Remarks on the foregoing, by the French Government.

Since his Britannic majesty judges proper to justify himself indirectly on the war which has just been rekindled upon the continent, he must feel himself to be the author of it. Indeed, on perusing his declaration with attention, it will appear that he looked upon the negotiation which he opened (at least after Mr. Fox's sickness had rendered that minister a stranger to the secret deliberations of the cabinet) much less as a means of attaining peace, than as a feint for the purpose of more effectually organizing the avowals he makes, and the information which breaks through the vague and hidden expressions of this state paper will serve to bear us out in this opinion.

It formally results from the very words of this declaration, that it was France who again made the first overtures of peace, upon the basis of *actual possession*, and on the most moderate terms. Now this single avowal acquits France of the reproach of ambition, which the king of the united kingdom makes her, and shows England to be the author of the war, with all its concomitant evils. For, would any power so earnestly demand peace, and would she make such sacrifices to obtain it, when she is ripening projects that can only be realized in war? and what other sentiment than an extreme desire of restoring peace to the world could have led the emperor Napoleon, become powerful by the treaty of Presburgh, to descend to all the steps which his Britannic majesty reveals to us, for the purpose of engaging the cabinets of London and Petersburgh to put an end to the calamities of war?

From the very outset of this declaration, his Britannic majesty speaks only of his allies; it would seem that he has made a formal engagement with the emperor of Russia not to treat but conjointly with each other. However, it is evident, that on both sides the negotiations were carried on with-

out any concert; and the Russian envoy soon signed at Paris a *separate* treaty. No doubt it is hardly possible to believe that the emperor Alexander would have consented to treat separately, if he had entered into a contrary engagement; hence the common rupture can only be attributed to subsequent intrigues.

We see, in this vague and artful declaration, neither the conditions at first proposed by France, nor the restrictions which were successively demanded by the English cabinet. The emperor of the French shewed more frankness, because he had not so much interest in concealing the truth. He has made known these conditions, and every sensible man must have been surprised, as well at the moderation of him who proposed them, as at the stupidity or perfidy which caused them to be rejected.

Upon the probability that they would be accepted, it was several times rumoured that the preliminaries were signed. But we see, from the declaration, that at the moment of their being on the point of being so, the negotiations were embarrased by new incidents. The secret of these delays was, to wait the result of the intrigues then at work to get the cabinet of St. Petersburgh changed, and agitate Prussia. Every time the disposition of these two courts appeared to be pacific, the negotiations were resumed. They did not take a decisive and warlike turn till after the strange refusal made by the emperor of Russia to ratify the treaty he had promised to approve without reserve. Then indeed the negotiation proceeded only with diplomatic forms.

When his Britannic majesty speaks of *his allies*, he makes no mention of Prussia. Yet the blockade of the Prussian ports was not executed. The two cabinets were very amicably connected in secret relations; the English government would not expose Prussia; however, the hostile attitude they kept with her was only a political masquerade; it breaks through the declaration. France was not the dupe of it; but she, perhaps, too long suffered lord Lauderdale to act a part, which from that moment appeared useless to the general good, and unworthy of his personal character.

The English ministry did not reveal their alliance with Prussia, before they saw her arrived on the field of battle. Then they sent her an ambassador and *money:* then they looked upon the Prussian army as their own. This was first seen by the exultation with which they got it praised by their hireling writers; and afterwards by the ridiculous rumours they set afloat of his victories. Nothing would better set off the success of the French army, than to relate the extravagances with which the English journalists endeavoured to lull public credulity. We heartily regret our not being able to afford our readers this entertainment. Indeed, the very retreat alone of lord Morpeth evinces the falsity of them to enlightened Englishmen, until the arrival of the inevitable truth loads the hawkers of these reports with inevitable ridicule. The remembrance of Austerlitz ought to have for ever disgusted the English ministry from having recourse to such unworthy subterfuges.

What are we in general to conclude from this declaration, and these new shifts? What, indeed, but that the war has again been made by the intrigues and for the sole interest of England! After sacrificing to this cruel project the advantages which were proposed to her, is it not singular she should still accuse the ambition of France? that she should reproach her with seeking to make acquisitions at the very moment when she was making cessions to her, which she is unable to deny? It may further be seen from this declaration, that those whom England calls her *allies* are necessarily the enemies of France. Thus it authorizes the emperor Napoleon to reduce them to an impossibility of hurting; it forces him to augment the power it complains of; it evidently shows that peace is adjourned until England be wholly excluded from the affairs of the continent.

ABSTRACT OF OFFICIAL PAPERS RELATIVE TO THE NEGOTIATION WITH FRANCE, PRESENTED TO BOTH HOUSES OF THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT, DECEMBER 22, 1806.

Letter from Secretary Fox to Talleyrand, dated Downing-street, 20th February, 1806.

SIR,

I think it my duty as an honest man to communicate to you, as soon as possible, a very extraordinary circumstance which has come to my knowledge. The shortest way will be to relate to you the fact simply as it happened.

A few days ago, a person informed me that he was just arrived at Gravesend without a passport, requesting me at the same time to send him one, as he had very lately left Paris, and had something to communicate to me which would give me satisfaction. I sent for him; he came to my house the following day. I received him alone in my closet; when, after some unimportant conversation, this villain had the audacity to tell me that it was necessary for the tranquillity of all crowned heads to put to death the ruler of France; and that for this purpose a house had been hired at Passy, from which this detestable project could be carried into effect with certainty, and without risk. I did not perfectly understand if it was to be done by a common musket, or by fire-arms upon a new principle.

I am not ashamed to confess to you, sir, who know me, that my confusion was extreme in thus finding myself led into a conversation with an avowed assassin; I instantly ordered him to leave me, giving, at the same time, orders to the police-officer who accompanied him, to send him out of the kingdom as soon as possible.

After having more attentively reflected upon what I had done, I saw my error in having suffered him to depart without having previously informed you of the circumstance, and I ordered him to be detained.

It is probable that all this is unfounded, and that the wretch had nothing more in view than to make himself of consequence by promising what, according to his ideas, would afford me satisfaction.

At all events, I thought it right to acquaint you with what had happened, before I sent him away. Our laws do not permit us to de-

tain him long, but he shall not be sent away till after you shall have had full time to take precautions against his attempts, supposing him still to entertain bad designs; and, when he goes, I shall take care to have him landed at a seaport as remote as possible from France.

He calls himself here Guillet de la Gevrillière, but I think it is a false name which he has assumed.

At his first entrance, I did him the honour to believe him to be a spy.

C. J. FOX.

From Talleyrand to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, March 5, 1806.—*Received March* 19*th.*

SIR,

I have laid your excellency's letter before his majesty. His first words after having read it were, "I recognize here the principles of honour and virtue, by which Mr. Fox has ever been actuated. Thank him on my part." I will not allow myself, sir, to add any thing to the expressions of his imperial and royal majesty.

Extract from a letter from Talleyrand to Secretary Fox, dated March 5, 1806.—*Received March* 19*th.*

It may be agreable to you to receive news from this country. I send you the emperor's speech to the legislative body. You will therein see that our wishes are still for peace. I do not ask what is the prevailing inclination with you; but if the advantages of peace are duly appreciated, you know upon what basis it may be discussed.

Extract from a speech delivered by the chief of the French government to the legislative body, on the 2*d of March*, 1806.

I desire peace with England. On my part, I shall never delay it for a moment. I shall always be ready to conclude it, taking for its basis the stipulations of the treaty of Amiens.

From Secretary Fox to Talleyrand, dated Downing-street, March 26, 1806.

SIR,

The information which your excellency has given me of the pacific disposition that prevails (in your councils), and of the basis upon which peace may be discussed, has induced me to lay that part of your private letter before the king.

His majesty has repeatedly declared to his parliament his sincere desire to embrace the first opportunity of re-establishing peace upon a solid basis, such as may be compatible with the interests and permanent security of his people: his wishes are uniformly pacific; but it is a safe and lasting peace that his majesty has in view, not an uncertain truce, which from its very uncertainty would be the source of disquietude as well to the contracting parties as to the other powers of Europe.

With regard to the stipulations of the treaty of Amiens, which are proposed as the basis of the negotiation, it has been observed here, that this phrase has been interpreted in three or four different ways, and, consequently, that farther explanations would be necessary, which could not fail to produce great, even did no other objections exist.

The true basis of such a negotiation between two great powers, equally despising every idea of chicane, would be the reciprocal recognition of the following principle, viz.: that the object of both parties should be a peace, honourable for both, and for their respective allies, and, at the same time, of a nature to secure, as far as in their power, the future tranquillity of Europe.

England cannot neglect the interests of any of her allies; and she is united to Russia by such close connections, that she would not treat, still less conclude upon any thing, but in concert with the emperor Alexander; but whilst awaiting the actual intervention of a Russian plenipotentiary, some of the principal points might however be discussed, and even provisionally arranged.

It might seem, that Russia, on account of her remote situation, should have fewer immediate interests to discuss with France than other powers; but that court, so respectable in every point of view, interests herself, like England, warmly in every thing that concerns the greater or less degree of independence enjoyed by the different princes and states of Europe.

You see, sir, how inclined we are here to remove every difficulty that might retard the discussion in question. With the resources that we possess, it is most assuredly not on our own account that we need fear a continuance of the war. Of all the nations of Europe, England, perhaps, is that which suffers the least by its prolongation; but we do not the less commiserate the misfortunes of others.

Let us then do all in our power to terminate them, and let us endeavour, if it be possible, to reconcile the respective interests and the glory of the two countries with the tranquillity of Europe, and the happiness of the human race.

From Talleyrand to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, April 1st, 1806.—Received April 7th.

SIR,

The very instant I received your letter of the 26th March, I waited upon his majesty; and I am happy to inform you, that he has authorized me to send you, without delay, the following answer:

The emperor covets nothing that England possesses. Peace with France is possible, and may be perpetual, provided there is no interference in her internal affairs, and that no attempt is made to restrain her in the regulation of her custom-duties; to cramp her commercial rights; or to offer any insult to her flag.

It is not you, sir, who have displayed in many public discussions an exact knowledge of the general affairs of Europe and of France, who require to be convinced that France has nothing to desire except repose, and a situation such as may enable her, without obstruction, to give herself up entirely to the labours of her industry.

The emperor does not imagine that any particular article of the treaty of Amiens produced the war. He is convinced, that the true cause was, the refusal to make a treaty of commerce, which would necessarily have been prejudicial to the manufactures and the industry of his subjects.

Your predecessors accused us of wishing universal conquest. In France, England has likewise her accusers. Very well! We only ask equality. We shall never require an account of what you do at home, provided that, on your side, you never require an account of what we do at home. This principle is reciprocally just, reasonable, and mutually advantageous.

You express a desire that the negotiation may not terminate in a short-lived peace. France is more interested than any other power that it should be permanent. It is not her interest to make a truce; since a truce would only pave the way for fresh losses. You know very well that nations, similar in this respect to individuals, accustom themselves to a state of war, as well as to a state of peace. All the losses that France could sustain, she has sustained. This will ever be the case in the first six months of war. At present our commerce and our industry *(se sont répliés sur eux-mêmes)* have taken the channel dictated by the circumstances of our country, and are adapted to our state of war. Consequently a truce of two or three years would be the thing of all others the most opposite to our commercial interests, and to the emperor's policy.

As to the intervention of a foreign power, the emperor might accept the mediation of a power possessing a great naval force, because, in that case, the participation of such power in the peace would be regulated by the same interests that we have to discuss with you; but the mediation you speak of is not of this nature. You do not wish to deceive us; and you are well aware there is no equality betwixt us in the guaranty of a power which has three hundred thousand men on foot, and which has no naval force. For the rest, sir, your communication has a character of openness and precision, which we have hitherto never seen in the communications between your court and us. I will make it my duty to employ the same openness, and the same precision, in my reply. We are ready to make peace with the whole world. We wish to dictate to no one. But we will not be dictated to; and no one possesses either the power or the means of doing it. It is in the power of none to make us relinquish treaties which are already carried into effect. The integrity, and the complete and absolute independence of the Ottoman empire, form not only the sincerest desire of the emperor, but constitute also the undeviating object of his policy.

Two enlightened and neighbouring nations would be wanting in the opinion they ought to entertain of their power and wisdom, should they call for the intervention of foreign and distant powers, in the discussions of the great interests which divide them: thus, sir, peace may be treated upon and concluded immediately, if your court really entertains the desire of attaining it.

Our interests are reconcileable, inasmuch as they are distinct. You are the rulers of the ocean; your naval forces are equal to those of all the sovereigns of the world united. We are a great continental power; but there are many who equal our power by land, and your maritime preponderance will always place our commerce at the mercy of your squadrons, imme-

diately after your declaring war. Do you think it reasonable to expect that the emperor should ever consent to submit himself to your discretion in continental affairs also? If, masters of the sea through your own power, you propose being masters of the land likewise by a combined force, peace is impossible; for in that case you will be striving for an object which you can never attain.

The emperor, accustomed as he is to encounter every risk which holds out the prospect of greatness and of glory, wishes for peace with England: he is a man; after so many fatigues, he is desirous for repose; the father of his subjects, he wishes, as far as it is compatible with their honour, and with security for the future, to procure for them the blessings of peace, and the advantages of a successful and uninterrupted commerce.

If, then, sir, his majesty the king of England really wishes for peace with France, he will appoint a plenipotentiary to repair to Lisle. I have the honour of sending you passports for this purpose. As soon as the emperor shall be informed of the arrival of the minister from your court, he will appoint one, and will send him without delay. The emperor is ready to make every concession, which, from the extent of your naval forces and of your preponderance, you may desire to obtain. I do not think that you can refuse to adopt the same principle of making him proposals conformable to the honour of his crown, and the commercial rights of his dominions. If you are just, if you desire only what is possible for you to obtain, peace will be soon made.

I conclude by declaring, that his majesty fully adopts the principle laid down in your dispatch, and offered as the basis of the negotiation, "that the peace proposed should be honourable for the two courts, and for their respective allies."

From Secretary Fox to Talleyrand, dated Downing-street, April 8th, 1806.

This letter concludes with a declaration in the following words: As soon as you consent that we shall treat provisionally until Russia can take a part in the negotiation, and, from that moment, conjointly with her, we are ready to begin without the delay of a single day, at whatever place, and in whatever form, the two parties may judge best adapted to bring to a happy issue the object of our labours, as expeditiously as possible.

From Talleyrand to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, April 16th, 1806.—Received April 19th.

After much argument, M. Talleyrand concludes with the following words: I see, in the proposed negotiation, only three possible forms of discussion:

Negotiation with England and the allies which she acquired at the time of the formation of the third coalition;

Negotiation with all the powers of Europe, with the addition of America;

Negotiation with England alone.

The first of these forms is inadmissible, because it would subject the emperor to the influence of the third coalition, which no longer exists. The emperor would have negotiated in this manner if he had been vanquished.

The second form of negotiation would eternalize the war, if the unavoidable occurrences to which it would at every instant give rise, and the passions which it would let loose without controul, did not cause the discussions to be broken off with violence a few years after they should have been entered into. The third, therefore, is the only one which can be desired by those who really wish for peace.

From Secretary Fox to Talleyrand, dated Downing-street, April 20th, 1806.

In reply, Mr. Fox concludes by declaring, that "the affair, in fine, is reduced to one single point. Will you negotiate conjointly with Russia? We answer, yes: but if you require us to negotiate separately, we answer, no."

From Talleyrand to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, 2d June, 1806.—Received June 4th.

M. Talleyrand now made two propositions: 1st, To negotiate in the same preliminary forms which were adopted during the administration of the marquis of Rockingham, in 1782; forms which were not renewed with so much advantage in the negotiations of Lisle, but which were perfectly successful in the negotiations which preceded the treaty of Amiens; 2dly, To establish as a basis two fundamental principles: the first, which I take from your letter of the 26th March, namely, "that the two states should have for their object that the peace be honourable for them and their respective allies, and at the same time of a nature to secure, as far as in their power, the future tranquillity of Europe." The second principle shall be an acknowledgment on the part of the two powers, of their mutual right of intervention and guaranty in continental and maritime affairs. His majesty, far from being unwilling to make this avowal, delights in raising it to a principle; and, in thus explaining his real intentions, I think I have given you a decisive proof of his pacific dispositions. His majesty is at the same time persuaded, that, in preventing for ever all subject of complaint, uneasiness, and remonstrance on this point, he has, in a case which is of essential interest to the good of human nature, done his duty as a man, and as a sovereign.

From Secretary Fox to Talleyrand, dated Downing-street, June 14, 1806.

In conclusion, he observes that "the form of negotiation which took place during lord Rockingham's administration is more particularly present to my memory, as I then held the same office with which his majesty has lately been pleased to honour me. Let France and England change situations, and the form you mention is exactly similar to that which I have proposed. We then treated with France and her allies; let France now treat with us and our allies. The basis offered in your second proposition is exactly conformable to the views of our government, provided it be well understood that, whilst we mutually acknowledge our respective rights of intervention and guaranty with regard to the affairs of Europe, we also mutually agree to abstain from all encroachment upon the greater or lesser states which compose it."

Communication by the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated June 13th, 1806.

A few days after my arrival at Paris from the depôt at Verdun, M. Talleyrand desired me to call upon him; having done so, he told me that the French government had been looking out for some means by which a secret and confidential communication might be made, explanatory of the sentiments and views of France, as well as the outlines of the terms on which peace might be restored between the two countries.

Having mentioned the extreme desire of making this communication in such a manner that no publicity might in any case ensue, should the object of it not be obtained, M. Talleyrand proceeded to state, in a long argument, which it is useless to repeat, as it forms the substance of several of the French government's dispatches, the reasons which prevent their treating for a general peace jointly with Russia.

He said, that in a dispatch sent some weeks before to Mr. Fox, he had been ordered to name Lisle rather than Amiens for the negotiation of a definitive treaty, in order to remove all former discussions, and to facilitate to England the possession of Malta.

I then took the liberty of interrupting M. Talleyrand, to say, that, however flattering the confidence he was ordered to place in me might be, yet that, feeling, as I did, the interests, and, above all, the honour of my country, it was impossible for me to be the bearer of a communication having peace for its object, against which I should feel obliged to vote in parliament; and, viewing the restoration of Hanover in this light, I could not receive any further communication till I had explicit declaration with regard to his majesty's German dominions.

M. Talleyrand then broke off the conversation, desiring me to return the third day after. At the expiration of this time, I waited upon him again, when he informed me, that, considering the extreme stress which appeared to be laid upon this point, Hanover should make no difficulty.

Authorized by the concession of that in which the honour of the king and that of the nation appeared most interested, I inquired whether the possession of Sicily would be demanded. It having been so said, "You are in possession of it, we do not ask it of you: if we possessed it, it might very much augment our difficulties:" considering this to be very positive both from the words and the manner of delivering them, I conceived it improper to make further questions;—"We ask nothing from you," amounting to an admission of the *uti possidetis* as applicable to his majesty's conquests.

M. Talleyrand mentioned strongly the recognition of the emperor, and the different branches of his family, as absolutely expected. On this I took occasion to state the solidity which the recognition of Great Britain would give to their establishment, and inquired whether the French government would guarantee the integrity of the Ottoman empire. The answer was, Yes, but it must be soon. "A great deal is in preparation, but nothing is yet done." Reverting to the first conversation, I desired to know whether a middle term might not be found, at

the same time to obtain the object desired by the French government, and that desired by Great Britain, of not treating in a manner unconnected with Russia. To this he answered, that they were entirely ready to give every facility to the arrangement of the respective interests of the two powers, or that a British minister should, being authorized by the emperor Alexander, stipulate for both.

The last words of M. Talleyrand were, "The sentiments entertained in France are entirely different from what they were. The asperity which characterized the commencement of this war, no longer exists; and what we most desire is, to live in harmony with so great a power as Great Britain."

From Secretary Fox to Talleyrand, dated June 14, 1806.

SIR,

I just write you a few words to express to you the pleasure which I feel at the desire you have manifested for peace. I have only to add that Lord Yarmouth possesses all my confidence, and that whatever he shall say to you, you may consider as said by myself.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, June 19, 1806.—*Received June* 21*st.*

SIR,

I have the honour to inform you that, in obedience to your orders, I made all the haste in my power to arrive at Paris as soon as possible; a calm at sea however prevented my getting here till the afternoon of the 16th.

I immediately waited upon M. Talleyrand to deliver to him the dispatches you intrusted to my care, and requested to put off any conversation on the subject of my journey till the next day. I intended employing this interval to endeavour to see M. d'Oubril if at Paris, and communicate with him previously to seeing again M. Talleyrand, or at any rate to obtain some knowledge of his motions.

Previous, however, to my leaving M. Talleyrand, he expressed to me that, although the desire of peace was equally sincere now as it was when I quitted Paris, yet that some changes had taken place which he had hinted at the possibility of when I last saw him, alluding to the readiness of Russia to treat separately; and further mentioned that the Emperor had received reports from his brother and the general officers under his orders, stating that Naples could not be held without Sicily, and the probability they saw of gaining possession of that island. I answered him, that, being ordered to require the restoration of Naples to the king of Sicily as a necessary article of peace, there would be no question of their separation.

I conceive Sicily to be the great difficulty; though perhaps, were there no other, it might be got over. M. Talleyrand often and seriously stated the absolute determination of the emperor not to consent to our demands of Naples, Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, or to alienate any part of his Italian states to form a provision for the king of Sardinia.

Against cessions in the West Indies or elsewhere I solemnly protested; nor do I think they

care sufficiently about these objects to give any sufficient continental equivalent for them.

M. Talleyrand often repeated that the emperor had enquired whether I had any powers, adding, "That in politics it is impossible to hold the same language, unless both parties are equally authorized;" and as frequently said that they considered Hanover, for the honour of the crown, Malta, for the honour of the navy, and the Cape of Good Hope for the honour of British commerce, to be sufficient inducements to induce his majesty's ministers to make peace.

P. S. On Tuesday 17th June I waited upon M. Talleyrand, and begun the conversation by alluding to the changes he had hinted at the night before, and desired leave to repeat the substance of what had passed at my former interviews with him, and which I had by his desire communicated. He agreed that the statement was accurate.

From Secretary Fox to the Earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, June 26, 1806.

MY LORD,

I had the honour on Saturday evening to receive your lordship's letters of the 19th, and should sooner have answered them, if I had not been for these three days past totally incapable of attending to business.

I am very happy to learn that M. Talleyrand acknowledges your accounts of former conversations to be accurately correct; but when he does acknowledge this, I have no conception on what ground he can recede from what he said so distinctly to your lordship before, upon the subject of Sicily. "You are in possession of it; we ask nothing from you," are words that made the more impression on me, because those contained in the latter clause of the sentence had been used by his excellency in one of his letters to me. It was on the faith of the *uti possidetis* being to be strictly observed as the basis, and particularly Sicily, on which satisfaction had been given to your lordship, that his majesty was induced to authorize your lordship to hold further conferences with M. Talleyrand. Any tergiversation or cavil therefore on that article, would be a breach of the principle of the proposed basis in its most essential part. To say that Hanover is an exception to the principle, is in vain, inasmuch as Hanover is to be yielded expressly in honour of the crown; while, on the other hand, the recognitions proposed with regard to the French empire and its dependants, are not only in honour of the crown of France, but tend substantially to establish the solidity of her power. With regard to the complaint of the want of full powers, to avoid all pretence of cavil on that account, I am commanded by his majesty to transmit to you the instrument accompanying this letter. But your lordship should fairly state to M. Talleyrand, that you are not authorized to make any use of them formally until M. Talleyrand returns to his former ground with respect to Sicily. Your lordship is directed further to acquaint that minister, that, if Russia offers to treat separately, it is only in the way in which we do; that is to say, separately in form, but in substance in concert with each other. And here you will recol-

lect that this very circumstance was canvassed in your former conversations with M. Talleyrand, when that minister expressed himself clearly that there would be no objection on the part of France to such pre-concert.

The result of what I have stated to your lordship is this, 1st, that Sicily is a *sine qua non*; on which subject if the French minister recedes from his former answer, it is in vain that any further discussion should take place. It is clearly within his first opinion delivered to your lordship: it is clearly within his last description of places which are reciprocally possessed by the two countries, and cannot in all probability be recovered by war.

If, according to the hope conceived by your lordship, this matter should be arranged, you may open your full powers; stating at the same time the determination of this court not to come to any final agreement without the consent of Russia. You will of course again mention the questions of Naples and Istria. If we could attain either of them, it would be well; but if we cannot, your lordship will not state these points as conclusive reasons against agreeing on preliminary articles, provided such articles be considered as provisional, and subject to the approbation of Russia.

With regard to the mode of provisional agreement, two suggest themselves to my mind: the one, to send the agreement we shall have entered into, either to Petersburgh, or to some authorized agent of the emperor Alexander, at Vienna, Paris, or elsewhere, for his approbation; the other, to copy the precedent adopted by lord Landsdowne and Dr. Franklin, in the year 1782. At that time a provisional treaty was signed by the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain and the United States of America, with the reservation, that the said treaty should not have effect till a peace should be agreed upon between France and England. Of these two modes I should prefer the latter.

It does not appear that there has been any conversation between your lordship and M. Talleyrand on a point which was mentioned to you, and which appears to be of considerable importance; I mean, the future admission of Russia and Sweden to become parties in a definitive treaty. I do not say that this is a point that must be determined upon previous to your settling the basis proposed; but it is one which should not be lost sight of, but, on the contrary, urged as far as possible.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July, 1st, 1806.—Received July 4th.

SIR,

I had the honour to receive, on Saturday night, the full powers with which it has graciously pleased his majesty to entrust me, and your dispatch of the 26th of June.

I waited upon M. Talleyrand next morning, and stated to him in the strongest manner the impossibility of my conversing any further upon the general outlines of peace, until he should return to the former ground, and consider Sicily in its true and real situation, namely, a state not conquered by France, or likely to be so, and coming most strictly within the meaning of his own words; that

it had been clearly expressed by him, and repeated to you in the first instance, that France did not intend to make Sicily an obstacle to peace. M. Talleyrand answered, that whilst the war continued, and till terms were actually agreed upon, change of circumstances were always to be considered as reasons for partial change of terms; that Bonaparte had been but lately convinced of the facility of taking Sicily at some future period of the war; but that, above all, he felt more and more its absolute necessity to make Naples and the neighbouring territories tenable: that had any confidential overture been made three months ago, they would have been ready to settle the question of Naples in the manner most satisfactory to Great Britain; the same a month later with regard to Holland. Those subjects were now arranged, and the emperor would consider any retrograde measure as equivalent to abdication. I observed to that minister, that however much good faith may be necessary in every transaction of the world, yet that being more peculiarly so, when a communication is made secretly and verbally, I had a right to be doubly surprized at any change of ground. He defended himself by his former argument about altered circumstances, and said, that when no change of disposition was manifested towards Great Britain herself, as to the restoration of Hanover, or the possession of Malta and the Cape, he thought we might suffer them to possess themselves of a part of the states of their enemy, necessary to the tenure of the rest, which no consideration would now induce France to restore.

M. Talleyrand then asked, whether I had any powers. I told him that I must decline answering that question, until he should inform me that there would be no further discussion about Sicily; but that he might easily draw a conclusion that I had, from the honourable manner in which Great Britain endeavoured to remove every obstacle not in its own nature insurmountable.

The minister then mentioned his being obliged to go to St. Cloud, and asked what I said; I answered "that I was ordered to continue no conversation till I should be informed that this new demand, changing entirely the proposed basis, should be urged no more." He appointed next morning for me to receive an answer.

I accordingly returned to the office yesterday morning, when M. Talleyrand repeated the same demand, offering to desist from the negotiation by Great Britain of any or all the new states, waving this concession to the honour of the powers created by France, and setting Hanover against Sicily, and pleading that no such recognition being demanded, Hanover would then appear a fair equivalent for that island. He read the draft of an article to this effect: that Great Britain and France should not oppose each other's arms against such of the powers now at war, as should not be named in the preliminary articles.

To this I declined making any answer, repeating my orders not to converse further till he should abandon this proposition, and return to the former basis. I added that, unless he did so, I could expect nothing but your order to return to England.

M. Talleyrand wished to revert to the old topic, on which I repeated to him that it was impossible for me to converse on any part of the subject, till he should entirely relinquish every mode of seeking for the possession of Sicily.

M. Talleyrand desired me to inform you, that on the 29th of June the French troops were to take possession of Cattaro.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 1st, 1806, midnight.—Received July 4th.

SIR,

After closing the dispatch I had the honour to address to you this morning, I went for the passport M. Talleyrand had promised to have prepared for the messenger's return.

Instead of giving me the passport, he made many excuses for its having escaped his memory, requesting me to wait till he should come back from St. Cloud.

When I returned, M. Talleyrand proposed to me to offer the hanse towns as an establishment for the king of Naples, and that the British troops should occupy them the same day they retake possession of Hanover. On a little further conversation, I had little doubt that were England to provide in any other manner for his Sicilian majesty, the king might add the hanse towns and their territories, in full sovereignty to his German dominions.

The proposition about the hanse towns being entirely new, I promised to refer it without any comment to you for his majesty's consideration.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 9th, 1806.—Received July 12th.

SIR,

I had the honour to receive your dispatch of the 5th instant early yesterday morning, and as soon as possible after waited upon M. Talleyrand, to communicate to him that the offer made by France was by no means admissible, and that I had no authority to listen to any proposals whatsoever for the restoration of peace till he should desist from all pretension to the island of Sicily.

M. Talleyrand not being willing to make any such declaration, I asked him to give me a passport to return to London; he desired me to wait one day, till he should again have taken the emperor's orders.

I accordingly returned this morning, when he desired me to propose Dalmatia, Albania, and Ragusa, as an indemnity for the loss of Sicily to his Sicilian majesty; to this I answered, that, as the messenger was returning, I should communicate this proposition, but that it by no means authorized me to expect an answer, and therefore I must beg leave to return to England.

Had M. d'Oubril not been here, I should immediately have insisted on passports.

I must now inform you, that on Monday M. Talleyrand took me aside, and told me that the telegraph announced the landing of Basilico, expressing at the same time a wish that the dispatches he would bring might lead to peace. I answered that I could expect no such result whilst France demand-

ed Sicily; and added, that if I might believe public report, the emperor, so far from showing any pacific disposition, every day threw new obstacles in the way.

I then mentioned the changes in Germany. M. Talleyrand said that they were determined upon, but *should not* be published if peace took place. He has since repeated this to M. d'Oubril and myself, saying if peace was made, Germany should remain in its present state.

M. d'Oubril writes both to you and to the compte de Strogonoff; his letters will probably contain more than mine, as I conversed very little with M. Talleyrand. I felt on very delicate ground. Had I entered sufficiently into the question of indemnities for the king of Sicily, to obtain a precise idea to what extent they could be carried, M. Talleyrand might have formed an opinion that I had some instructions, and was prepared to abandon Sicily whenever I was assured of sufficient compensation.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 19, 12 *o'clock at night.—Received July* 22*d.*

SIR,

On the 10th, general Clarke was named plenipotentiary to treat with M. d'Oubril; they have since had daily conferences of many hours, yesterday of fourteen. I hear every where that peace will be signed to-morrow between Russia and France. On the 17th, M. d'Oubril admitted to me, that he had produced his powers, and that, if conditions such as he should judge necessary to ensure the repose of the continent could be obtained, he should sign a truce of ten months; and this night, on pressing him, and remonstrating both upon his conduct and the impropriety of disguising his intention, I drew from him these words, which I wrote down in his presence. "That being aware of the immediate danger of Austria, if it was in his power to save it, he should think his duty to do so, even by a separate peace." All he now appears to claim is the return of the troops from Germany; and if he is willing to make peace on receiving an assurance that orders to that effect shall be sent, nobody can doubt but that it will be signed, and probably not a battalion make a retrograde movement of fifty miles.

M. Talleyrand says, that M. d'Oubril is willing to abandon Sicily and Dalmatia, and even to engage to solicit the junction of the former to Naples, &c.

I have used every argument to dissuade M. d'Oubril from so unadvised and unwise a measure, I hope more than I believe, with success. Indeed, I feared, from the first hour I met him, that he was determined to make a peace, good or bad, with or without Great Britain. I may perhaps gain a day, which may be a great deal, if that day should produce dispatches from M. de Strogonoff.

On the 17th at night the new arrangements for Germany were finally determined upon. The princes and the ministers who signed were scarce allowed time to read the deed.

There is a considerable army forming at Bayonne; thirty thousand men are there already. This army is ostensibly destined against Portugal, but will take Spain like-

wise. M. Herman, one of the secretaries of the foreign office, set off for Lisbon with a mission on the 13th.

All the officers of the army now in Germany received yesterday orders to join their regiments instantly. The court say, this is to have troops to occupy the states seized by the new confederacy. The public ascribe this measure to a desire to frighten the emperor of Germany; and myself, to a wish to hurry M. d'Oubril, who has shown so much anxiety for the evacuation of Germany.

M. d'Oubril and M. Talleyrand have, as I have learnt, fixed upon Majorca, Ivica, and Minorca, for his Sicilian majesty, if they can prevail upon us to evacuate Sicily.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 20, 1806, 11 *at night.—Received July* 24*th.*

SIR,

At nine this morning, having had the honour to receive your letters by Mr. Longuinoff, and written a few lines to you in addition to my dispatches of last night, I went to M. d'Oubril; and, as I am happy since to find, anticipated the contents of your dispatch of the 18th instant.

I used every argument and means to obtain delay; engaged to break off, if he did; and, finally, authorized him to hold out hopes, that I would listen to propositions of indemnity in lieu of Sicily for his Sicilian majesty, if proposed by him, and accompanied by a joint negotiation.

I begged he would do nothing till after Basilico should have arrived, as I had learned by the telegraph that he had landed last night.

I did not find him disposed to listen to me; and, not being willing to be too communicative towards him at that moment, I went away.

At four, I heard, from good authority, that peace was signed. At six, Basilico arrived. I then went to M. d'Oubril. He was said not to be at home; but, seeing his carriage, I forced my way. He admitted the fact, *Peace is signed;* the conditions, the evacuation *instanter* of Germany by the French troops; the integrity, &c., of the Ottoman empire; no attempt to be made upon Swedish Pomerania; and, by a secret article, Russia promises to obtain his Sicilian majesty's consent to an exchange of Sicily for Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica. Russia to use her good offices to restore peace between France and England.

M. d'Oubril sends a copy to Count Strogonoff, and goes himself to St. Petersburgh. I had no patience to listen to M. d'Oubril's defence of his conduct, so I did not claim his good offices. I must have asked him officially to stay, which I did not chuse to do.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 21, 1806.—*Received July* 24.

SIR,

I saw M. Talleyrand to-day. I can perceive that the terms of France are increased, but still not so much so as the sudden defection of Russia had led me to apprehend. Hanover, Malta, the Cape, and India, remain pure and unsullied; and I took an opportu-

nity in conversation to protest, that, come what come might, these were points I never would suffer to be mentioned, but as points agreed upon.

M. Talleyrand demanded my powers. I did not think myself authorized, in the present circumstances, to withhold them.—General Clarke is named to treat with me.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 24, 1806.

SIR,

I had the honour to send by M. de Longuinoff dispatches acquainting you, for his majesty's information, of the peace signed between the Russian and French plenipotentiaries, and with as accurate a statement of the terms as I was able to obtain. M. d'Oubril himself set out for Petersburgh early on the morning of the 22d.

On the 22d I received the official notification of the appointment of general Clarke to treat on the part of France (a copy of which I have the honour to inclose), preceded by a private communication from M. Talleyrand, saying, that the Russian peace being signed, and the season of the year favourable to the accomplishment of the ulterior views of France, no arrangement, which might remove for some weeks or even months a definitive treaty, could now take place.

I answered the official note with one, a copy of which I enclose.

In the evening, general Clarke proposed a conference for the following morning, at which we should mutually exchange our full powers. We accordingly did so; and I inclose a copy of those of general Clarke.

This conference began by a historical recapitulation of what had previously passed, general Clarke saying, he had not yet received his final instructions on all the different points in discussion; it was therefore agreed to adjourn the conference to this day, when each should come prepared with a memorandum of the intentions of his government, founded on what had already passed; general Clarke at the same time declaring that a separate peace with Russia was to be considered equal or superior, in the present circumstances of the world, to any great success in war, and consequently as entitling France to terms much more advantageous than those to which she would have subscribed some days ago. This was accompanied by some animadversions upon the conduct of Russia, to which I could only answer, that I felt it my duty to abstain from any remark, and should, therefore, be entirely silent on that subject; but that I could assure him that if an intention existed of making any change in the great points upon which we had had such positive, though certainly not official, assurances, namely, his majesty's German dominions, Malta, and the Cape, I must consider the negotiation as stopped *in limine*, and that there would remain only for me to return to England, and acquaint the king that no peace consistent with his majesty's honour or that of the country could be made. General Clarke reverted to his want of full instructions, and promised to meet me properly prepared, the next day.

At three o'clock this day, I

again met general Clarke, when I read a paper, a copy of which I inclose, containing the abstract of what I had always stated to be the basis and terms on which his majesty could alone consent to treat. I did not, however, deliver it to him, considering it merely as the heads of past conversations.

General Clarke then said, that, as it was impossible I could be prepared with the assent of his majesty to the arrangement proposed by Russia for his Sicilian majesty, on which the terms might much depend, I must consider the communication he made as not strictly official in point of form, but as depending only on that circumstance to make it so.

General Clarke proceeded to state, that, in the situation France was in at this moment, the emperor would feel authorized to withhold some of the great points; but that, having repeatedly said to the contrary, though not in an official manner, he would abide by it.

General Clarke first conversed about his majesty's German dominions. On this subject, by secret articles, any thing his majesty thinks right may be stipulated: by the public article, the promise not to object to some acquisition of territory to be made by Prussia. I stopped general Clarke here to say, that his majesty never could consent to the king of Prussia's obtaining the hanse towns. General Clarke said that it was Fulda, Hoya, and some other trifling principalities, over which it was proposed to extend the sovereignty of his Prussian majesty, but that the independence and present state of the hanse towns should not be meddled with.

On the subject of Malta: Malta Gozo, and Conino in full sovereignty to his majesty, with a clause in the article, declaratory of the dissolution of the order, and that the two powers "no longer recognize the existence of it." Some pensions for the chevaliers and others, having "real rights in the island." This not to extend to any foreign commanderies of the order, or to any claim not local.

The Cape in equal full sovereignty; as a condition it is desired, "that there should be established there a free port" to all nations: either the port itself declared so, or a part appropriated to that purpose.

On the subject of the maintenance of the integrity of the territories and possessions of the sublime porte, general Clarke proposed an article, a copy of which I send; I told him the usual full clause would be sufficient; he persisted that I should send it for his majesty's consideration.

To the usual full clause of the integrity of the territories and possessions of his most faithful majesty, general Clarke weighed upon a proposed addition of the words "in every part of the world;" and, when asked for explanation, said, he thought his Britannic majesty might occupy some of his most faithful majesty's foreign possessions.

The integrity of his Swedish majesty's dominions in the usual manner.

Having dismissed these points, general Clarke stated the demands of France: Pondicherry, St. Lucie, Tobago, Surinam, Goree, Demarara, Berbice, Essequibo.

The recognition in the usual words, "is recognized," of the different branches of the reigning

family; of the electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg as kings; of the new dukes of Cleves, Baden, and Darmstadt.

In discussing for many hours these demands, I never for an instant admitted the possibility of his majesty's consenting to the cessions required. I sought, however, to ascertain to what extent, and in what manner, they could be modified.

From the Earl of Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 30, 1806.

SIR,

I had the honour to receive your dispatch of the 26th instant late last night on the 28th, and next morning lost no time in asking for blank passports for a person fully instructed with the sentiments of his majesty's government, whom it was their intention to join with me in the important commission of treating for peace. M. Talleyrand told me he must take the emperor's orders. I accordingly returned this day, when that minister informed me, that the emperor could consider this demand in no other light but that of unnecessary delay, because his majesty's secretary of state was actually in possession of a blank passport, which would enable any person or persons to come to Paris without the loss of time occasioned by this demand, but that "for still greater facility," there could be no difficulty about giving more. I answered that I had no knowledge of this circumstance. M. Talleyrand said it was certain, because he had sent two entirely in blank, and that one only had been used, namely, that with which I returned.

It is unnecessary for me to add any thing to what I have already said in my former dispatches, relative to the signature of the Russian treaty; any inaccuracy in the statement of its contents, such as I was enabled to transmit them, may easily be accounted for by the circumstance of my not having seen the treaty itself, and by the unwillingness M. d'Oubril naturally felt to open himself to me on that subject; he informed me at the time that he should send a copy to M. de Strogonoff, who would communicate it to his majesty's ministers.

It is with pain, sir, proportioned to my zeal for his majesty's service, and to the fair and honest conviction of my having done nothing which the peculiar and trying circumstances of the moment did not require from me, that I have learned by the same dispatch the expression of a wish that I had delayed the production of my full powers till I could know the impression which this event of the Russian treaty might produce in his majesty's councils, and the apprehension that by the producing them, so soon after the signature of the Russian treaty, an impression might be created unfavourable to the further progress of the negotiation.

If the question regarded only my own personal feelings, I should not think myself at liberty to allot to it so large a portion of a public dispatch; but it may not, I conceive, be unuseful, with a view to the conduct of the negotiation, that you should be apprized of some details which I have hitherto omitted dwelling upon, partly from the urgency of more important subjects, and partly from my desire not to trespass upon your

attention to so great an extent. I trust, sir, that his majesty will see in these details wherewithal to justify my conduct in the difficult situation in which I was placed.

The fate of Holland and Naples were settled before I was honoured with his majesty's confidence. My conversation here with M. Talleyrand soon convinced me that these were only preludes to still greater changes in the system of Europe. I saw at the same time a great desire of negotiation, before the final execution of some of the emperor's schemes should have removed any hope of its being attended with success.

This opinion, not pre-conceived or lightly taken up, but gradually formed from a variety of circumstances, was confirmed by the nature of the offers held out, unofficially indeed, but in such clear and unequivocal terms, that it was impossible to entertain any doubt of the intention of this government to adhere to them.

The point which, of all others, was the most essential, and that on which satisfaction was due to the national honour and to that of his majesty, Hanover, would, I was assured, be given up without restriction; for I did not then know we should be asked to allow the king of Prussia to obtain the sovereignty of some of the lesser principalities.

I received several assurances about Malta and the Cape of Good Hope; nor have I any reason to doubt but that before Russia had made her peace separately, these terms might have been obtained, and the treaty have had solely for its basis the *uti possidetis*, with the sole exception in our favour of Hanover restored, and latterly indeed of some arrangements tolerable to all parties in exchange for Sicily.

M. Talleyrand held the same language to me, with respect to Russia, which he had before held with regard to the affairs of Germany. "You have now been here a month; we have been willing to converse with you, to give you an insight into our views, and to communicate them to the British government. We told you, that if you had the powers, and would enter into negotiation, we would not sign the arrangement of Germany. A reasonable time was left you to consult your government; we had no answer. The arrangement was signed, 'and we will never recede from it.' We now ask you, whether you will treat before Russia has signed, which will not pass two days."

It cannot be necessary to state my answer to such a proposition. I will only add, that the treaty with Russia was signed within the time mentioned, and then commenced the difficulty of my situation.

"Switzerland (I was told by the same authority) is on the eve of undergoing a great change. This cannot be averted but by a peace with England; but still less can we alter, for any other consideration, our intention of invading Portugal. The army destined for that purpose is already assembling at Bayonne. This is for the determination of Great Britain."

But I confess the point of all others the most decisive in inducing me to produce my full powers, was the language held respecting Prussia.

"Prussia demands from us a declaration respecting Hanover; we cannot consent wantonly to lose the only ally France has had

since the revolution: the declaration once made, "we cannot retract." Would you have us break entirely with Prussia, when we cannot even say that Great Britain will negotiate with us? Are you here only with orders to delay our measures till the season of the year makes exertion impossible, or can you treat? If so, is not the assurance we give you that Hanover, Malta, and the Cape, shall not be contested, sufficient to induce you to do so? Must we lay before the British government our exact terms, before they will even avow negotiation with so great a power as that of France? or shall we execute our other projects, as we did those in Holland and Naples?"

Undoubtedly, sir, conversations of this sort, confirmed even as they were by the events passing under my eyes, could never have induced me to commit his majesty's confidential servants upon any point upon which I had not received their instructions, and which left no time to receive them; but I did not think myself at liberty to shift from myself the responsibility thus thrown upon me, at the risk of seeing Portugal and Switzerland share the same fate which Germany has just experienced, and Hanover confirmed to Prussia, until such time as his majesty's arms should recover the possession of it.

The mode of proceeding of this government has left me no alternative. Either to avow negotiation, or shut up every opening to it, was my only option.

I felt that I pledged his Majesty to nothing except the fact of negotiation, already privately known to every court in Europe.

I carefully forbore giving any written paper, or admitting even the possibility of any other basis than that of *uti possidetis*.

I have ascertained the real extent of the pretensions of France; and I did consider myself to have prevented a great evil at small expence, by having given time to yourself and his majesty's other confidential servants, to provide by the further instructions you might judge proper, for the interest of the powers, thus, for the moment at least, saved from the grasp of France.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Talleyrand, dated Paris, August 5, 1806.

The earl of Lauderdale, appointed by his Britannic majesty plenipotentiary to the court of France, has the honour to inform his excellency the minister for foreign affairs of his arrival at Paris, and at the same time to request he will have the goodness to inform him at what hour he may call upon him.

From the Earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, August 9, 1806.—*Received August* 13.

SIR,

We have now to inform you, that lord Lauderdale having exhibited his powers, and delivered a copy in the customary form, our first meeting with general Clarke, the plenipotentiary of the French government, took place at his house, on Thursday, 7th August, at noon.

Our conversation commenced by general Clarke's observing that, as lord Lauderdale had just arrived from London, with full in-

structions from his majesty, he had probably something new to communicate.

Lord Lauderdale in substance replied, that it was his wish, before intermeddling with the negotiation now pending, distinctly to recal to the recollection of general Clarke what had already passed between his majesty and the government of France, and at once precisely to state the only footing on which his majesty could consent to treat. To effect this object, he informed general Clarke, that he had prepared a note, which he begged to deliver to him as official.

General Clarke read the note twice with great attention, and afterwards placed it on his port folio, saying that he must take it *ad referendum*.

Very little passed at this meeting sufficiently interesting to merit being detailed; the general objected to the practice he apprehended lord Lauderdale meant to introduce of conducting the negotiation by writing; and said he was afraid the emperor would regard it as a means of endless delay, if a note was to be delivered on every insignificant question. The reply consisted merely in stating the distinction betwixt delivering a written note for the purpose of at once bringing to a point the basis on which the negotiation was to be conducted, and resorting on every trivial occasion to that practice. The first, it was contended, must accelerate; the latter, it was admitted, would delay the negotiation, and it would be therefore carefully avoided, as it was his majesty's wish that no delay should take place.

General Clarke, with something like an insinuation that an unfair advantage was taken by the government of Great Britain, announced that, as there had been two plenipotentiaries appointed by his Majesty, it was the emperor's intention to do the same, and that the name of the person selected would be communicated to us.

It is proper to state, that in the course of this conversation lord Yarmouth recalled to general Clarke's recollection, that in all the interviews he had had with him, he uniformly stated the *uti possidetis* as the only basis upon which he could possibly treat. General Clarke in reply said, that he could make no answer to what lord Yarmouth stated, without alluding to conversations, which he affected to consider as loose, calling them "*des romans politiques*" (political romances); at the same time by his silence he clearly admitted what lord Yarmouth most distinctly stated.

Our first interview terminated with an appointment to meet at lord Lauderdale's apartments on Friday the 8th, at twelve o'clock, the general observing that it might be perhaps necessary to put off the appointment, as he wished to have full time to consider the note which had been delivered, and as the new plenipotentiary might wish to have an opportunity carefully to read the correspondence that hitherto had taken place. He promised at the same time, if this was the case, to give us notice by writing in the morning.

On the 8th, at eleven o'clock, the inclosures were left at lord Lauderdale's apartments, and an answer was sent to general Clarke, stating that an appointment had been made by lords Lauderdale and Yarmouth to receive the

Turkish ambassador at four o'clock, and requesting that the meeting should take place on Saturday the 9th, at noon.

General Clarke and monsieur Champagny, minister of the interior, the newly appointed plenipotentiary, afterwards put off this meeting till four o'clock to-day, as the latter was obliged to attend the emperor's privy-council at St. Cloud.

Late on Friday night lord Yarmouth received the answer to the note delivered by lord Lauderdale, a copy of which is inclosed, to which lord Lauderdale and lord Yarmouth immediately returned the answer also inclosed.

General Clarke and M. Champagny came to the meeting appointed at four o'clock, and a conversation took place which lasted upwards of two hours. Into the details of this it is impossible now to enter. The general object of it was to engage lord Lauderdale to depart from the basis which he had insisted should be recognized, to prevail on him to consult his government, or to take ten or fifteen days for consideration; but it terminated by lord Lauderdale's declaring that the last note was to be considered as a prelude to his demanding passports, for which he should apply to M. Talleyrand in the course of the evening.

The letter, a copy of which is inclosed, was dispatched to M. Talleyrand half an hour after the departure of the plenipotentiaries, and it appears highly improbable that any proposition should be made, which can alter our resolution of leaving France the moment the passports arrive.

A note delivered by the Earl of Lauderdale to General Clarke, at Paris, on the 7th of August, 1806.

The undersigned plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, previous to entering upon the negotiation actually pending between his sovereign and the court of France, thinks it necessary briefly to retrace the circumstances in which it originated. At the same time, he conceives it consistent with that character of openness and sincerity, which, as his Britannic majesty's plenipotentiary, he is determined invariably to support, to declare the only basis upon which he can consent to treat, to be the principle which France herself originally laid down: and to define the nature of the discussion into which he is about to enter.

The strong and energetic language in which the French government, a few months since, expressed its desire for peace, whilst it inspired his majesty with confidence in the real sincerity of the wishes of the court of France, left him only to regret that the proposal of treating with his majesty separately from his allies, appeared to prevent both France and England from profiting by that happy disposition of their respective governments; it being at that time impossible for his majesty, conformably with the good faith which he has ever evinced, to treat otherwise than conjointly with his ally the emperor of Russia.

Since that time, his majesty having found that circumstances, which it is unnecessary to detail here, permitted his majesty to negotiate separately, he received with great pleasure the proposal of treating generally, upon the

basis of *uti possidetis*, which was to be scrupulously observed, except in the case of Hanover, which was proposed to be ceded to his majesty, with all its dependencies.

It is true, that this proposal was not made either directly, or through the channel of an accredited minister: of its authenticity, however, no one could entertain the smallest doubt.

Independently of the authority which it derived from the character of the person employed to communicate it, it seemed to agree completely with what had been previously announced. For "the emperor desires nothing that England possesses," (an avowal made at the commencement of the correspondence between the two courts) was a natural prelude to such a proposal.

His majesty regarded the cession of Hanover as a proof of the spirit of justice in which the proposal was conceived, because this electorate, although occupied on account of a supposed identity of interests and of measures, in fact had no relation whatever with the disputes which produced the present war; and his majesty saw in the principle hitherto acknowledged as the general basis of negotiation, a basis peculiarly adapted to the relative situations of the two parties, which he considered a proof that France was as sincerely disposed as Great Britain to put an end to an order of things, equally prejudicial to the interests of both countries.

In fact it appeared to his majesty to be the only principle upon which it was probable that a negotiation could be brought to a successful issue. From the nature of the interests of the parties engaged in it, there was but little hope that any satisfactory arrangement could be made on the ground of reciprocal restitution, by giving up their respective acquisitions; whilst, on the other hand, the principle of *uti possidetis* naturally presented itself, as the mode of terminating the unfortunate hostilities between the two nations, both of whom were in possession of conquests extensive and important in point both of territory and of influence: France on the continent of Europe, and Great Britain in other parts of the world.

This truth appeared still more striking to his majesty, upon reflecting that the state of possession in which the two nations held their respective acquisitions could scarcely suffer any important change by the continuance of the war; the superiority of the naval force of Great Britain being, according to all appearance, not less firmly established on the seas, than that of the armies of France on the continent of Europe.

It was under the impression which these ideas naturally produced, that his majesty accepted, without hesitation, the proposal of treating upon the principle of *uti possidetis*, with the reservation due to the connection and the concert that subsisted with the emperor of Russia; and, as a proof of his sincerity, his majesty fixed upon the person by whom the communication had been made, to announce the readiness with which he had acceded to the basis proposed for the conclusion of a treaty.

The undersigned is by no means disposed to conceal the satisfaction his majesty derived from these happy prospects of speedily restoring to his subjects the blessings

of peace, upon just and equitable principles, such as were conformable to the honour of his crown; nor the regret which his majesty felt, when, almost at the very moment of his declaring his acceptance of the proposal that had been made to him, it was signified that this principle was suddenly abandoned by the demand of the evacuation and cession of Sicily: a demand which has hitherto been modified merely by projects of indemnity for his Sicilian majesty, which appear to be totally inadequate and inadmissible.

This demand, so incompatible with the avowed principles upon which the two powers were treating, was in itself sufficient to put an end to the negotiation; but the anxiety of his majesty the king of Great Britain and Ireland to concur with his ally the emperor of Russia, and to secure to his subjects the blessings of peace, induced him to receive any new proposal for obtaining for his Sicilian majesty, in exchange for Sicily, a real and satisfactory equivalent, such as that sovereign should consent to accept.

No satisfactory proposal of this nature having yet been made, the undersigned must declare that he cannot consent to treat upon any other principle than that of the *uti possidetis*, as originally proposed to his sovereign by the court of France: at the same time he is desirous it should be well understood, that the adoption of this principle will not prevent him either from listening to any just and adequate indemnification to his Sicilian majesty for the cession of Sicily, or from accepting any proposition for the exchange of territory between the two contracting parties, upon just and equal principles, such as may tend to the reciprocal advantage of the two countries.

The undersigned is well aware, that, since the *uti possidetis* was proposed by the court of France, peace has been concluded between France and the emperor of Russia, and that, in consequence, the relative situation of the two countries is no longer the same; but, on the other hand, he must also observe, that since that time France has acquired fresh advantages in consequence of the extensive changes which she has made in the constitution of the German empire; an arrangement, the preventing of which was represented by France to the court of Great Britain as a powerful motive for the immediate conclusion of peace on the basis of *uti possidetis*. If then this principle formerly appeared just to France, it cannot fail at present, according to her own views of the subject, to be more favourable to her interests than to those of the British empire.

The undersigned thinks it at the same time necessary to observe, that, although France may have other important views upon the continent of Europe, his majesty the king of Great Britain and Ireland may very fairly form views in other parts of the world of infinite importance to the commerce and to the power of his empire, and consequently that he cannot, conformably with either the interests of his people or the honour of his crown, negotiate upon any principle of inferiority either avowed or supposed. He can treat upon no other footing than the supposition that the continuance of hostilities is equally disadvantageous to both parties. There

can be no reason to suppose that the conquests which his majesty proposes to retain by the peace can be wrested from him by war; and the undersigned is persuaded that the best proof of the equity of the conditions, upon which he proposes to treat, is to be found in the fact, that they were proposed by France herself at the first opening of the communications between the the two governments, which have led to the mission with which his sovereign has been pleased to entrust him conjointly with the earl of Yarmouth.

From General Clarke to the Earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated Paris, August 8, 1806.

The undersigned minister, &c., has laid before his government the note transmitted yesterday by his excellency lord Lauderdale.

His majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, could not see without pain, that a negotiation which has already been the subject of so much discussion, which has occasioned the dispatching of so many messengers by both parties, which was in a word already brought to maturity, should have suddenly taken a retrograde direction, so as to present obstacles founded, not in the nature of the stipulations, but on the very ground on which that negotiation was commenced.

The court of France has constantly refused to admit in the same negotiation the courts of England and Russia, and whatever desire his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, may have, to see a general peace shortly re-established, no consideration could induce him to violate that principle of his policy. The negotiations which France had commenced at Petersburgh had moreover convinced his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, that the English cabinet deceived itself with respect to the nature of its relations with Russia.

After several months of discussion, the cabinet of London yielded this point, and his excellency the earl of Yarmouth arrived publicly at Calais, and afterwards at Paris, for the purpose of treating for peace. He had conferences with his excellency the minister for foreign affairs immediately after his arrival in this capital, having previously made known to him that he was duly authorized by his government.

Since that period, Russia has concluded her peace with France. The undersigned has been appointed minister plenipotentiary to negotiate with the plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, and the first step was an exchange of his powers with those of his excellency the earl of Yarmouth, whom he was bound to believe, as is expressed in his excellency's full powers, authorized to negotiate, conclude, and sign a definitive treaty between France and the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Very frequent conferences, most of them of several hours, have since taken place between the two plenipotentiaries, who, with good faith on both sides, endeavoured to do away the difficulties, and put aside every thing that could have tended to irritate their minds, or to embarrass and unnecessarily retard the progress of the negotiation.

Instead of transmitting to each other notes, more or less ingeni-

ous, but which rather remove than approximate the object which it is wished to attain; instead of beginning those written controversies, which are not less injurious to humanity than open hostilities, and which prolong the miseries of nations; instead, above all things, of negotiating peace in the same manner in which war is carried on, the plenipotentiaries had free conferences, in which his majesty the emperor and king granted all which he could grant without losing sight of the dignity of his crown, his love for his people, and the interest of his allies.

His majesty will never be reduced to make further sacrifices.

Does not the method taken by his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, the new plenipotentiary on the part of his Britannic majesty, appear to announce that a multitude of notes will not be sufficient even to bring the governments to an understanding? And is not a risk evidently incurred, by adopting such a method, the abuse of which has been so manifest in our recollection, of being still further from a good understanding than we have hitherto been? If, on the contrary, it is only wished to form documents which may hereafter be presented to the parliament of Great Britain, his majesty the emperor and king has no similar inducement; it is peace that he desires; a peace equally honourable for France, for Great Britain, and for their allies, which the mutual and assiduous labour of the respective plenipotentiaries shall have rendered acceptable to both governments.

Nevertheless, that his love of justice, and the sincerity of his pacific sentiments may be manifest to every one, and that it may be truly known, to whom all hindrance to the progress of the negotiation ought to be attributed, his majesty the emperor of the French has deigned to permit the undersigned to discuss here the vain question relative to the basis of this negotiation, which was already advanced, and on the point of being terminated.

In the letter written to his excellency Mr. Fox, on the 1st of April, by his excellency the French minister for foreign affairs, that minister declared that his majesty the emperor of the French entirely adopted the principle set forth in the dispatch of his excellency Mr. Fox, of the 26th March, and offered as the basis of the negotiation: "That the proposed peace ought to be honourable for the two courts, and for their respective allies."

In his letter of the 2d June, to his excellency Mr. Fox, his excellency the minister for foreign affairs went still further: he proposed in the name of his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, to establish as a basis two fundamental principles, the first of them taken from Mr. Fox's letter of the 26th of March, namely: "That the object of the two powers should be a peace honourable to themselves, and to their respective allies, at the same time that this peace should be of a nature to insure, as far as should lie in their power, the future tranquillity of Europe."

The second principle was, "An acknowledgment in favour of both powers of the right of interference and of guarantee with regard to continental affairs, and with regard to maritime affairs."

Such was the basis adopted by the British government, and agreed upon with it. It could

never have entered into the mind of his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, to take the *uti possidetis* as the basis of the negotiation. If such had been his intention, he would have kept Moravia, a part of Hungary, Styria, Carniola, Croatia, the whole of Austria, as well as its capital; Trieste, and Fiume, and the surrounding coast would still be in his power, as well as Genoa and Venice. Hanover, Osnaburgh, and all the mouths of the great rivers of the north of Germany would be subject to his dominion; and, doubtless, his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, might then without difficulty have left his Britannic majesty in possession of the Cape, Surinam, Tobago, St. Lucia, Pondicherry, &c.

As to Sicily, in this very supposition his majesty the emperor and king would not have left it to his enemies; but his majesty would only have thought that the conquest of this island should have preceded the opening of the negotiations; and while Prussia and Russia have either guaranteed or recognized the changes which have taken place in the kingdom of the two Sicilies, is it to be supposed that England could have prevented the conquest of Sicily, which is separated from the continent only by a channel of less than two thousand toises?

And even supposing that the Cape, Surinam, and other Dutch possessions could have been finally detached from the kingdom of Holland, is it not certain that its existence as a nation would become from that very cause impossible; and that its incorporation with the French empire would have been the necessary consequence of a refusal given by England to restore to it its colonies? What, in fact, could be the means of maintaining a nation which would have nothing but debts, and from which the total deprivation of all commerce would take away the possibility of paying them? Whatever their excellencies the plenipotentiaries of his Britannic majesty may allege, it is impossible that they should not be convinced, that it is a very different thing for Great Britain to see the Texel and the mouths of the Rhine and the Meuse in the power of the French revenue-officers, or to see them in the power of the Dutch. Thus, therefore, Holland, without the restitution of its colonies, would necessarily become a province of the French empire; for, on accepting the crown of Holland, prince Lewis formally declared his intention of renouncing it, if the Dutch colonies were not restored at the general peace.

Let Hanover become a province of France; let Trieste, Fiume, and their territory likewise become provinces of the kingdom of Italy, and let Great Britain keep, as a compensation, the Cape, Surinam, Malta, and Pondicherry, &c.: France will consent to it, and the great principle of *uti possidetis* will be applied in its full extent, both as to the present and as to the future.

Let the new minister plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty point out, in the history of the world, a negotiation terminated upon the principle of the *uti possidetis* between two great nations. Let him examine whether this principle does not belong rather to an armistice than to a treaty of

peace? It is impossible not to say, that, in proposing to France the *uti possidetis*, particularly under the present circumstances, a strange idea must have been formed of the character of the emperor Napoleon, and it must have been believed that he was reduced to a singular state of humiliation and distress.

But, in demanding the *uti possidetis*, his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, plenipotentiary from his Britannic majesty, without regard to the principle which he advances, wishes to change entirely the destiny of a continental state, which gave 25,000 men to England, and furnished her with a part of the means which she afforded in the seven years' war, and even in the war of the French revolution, to the armies of the north. Thus, therefore, it is wished to maintain the principle of the *uti possidetis*, in order to deprive France of all her commerce, and of all her establishments, and to ruin her allies; but it is wished to violate the principle of the *uti possidetis*, in order to oblige France to renounce her engagements, to break her treaties; in a word, to dissolve her whole continental system! Is not this to propose a peace a thousand times more disastrous than the longest war, and conditions calculated to excite the indignation of every Frenchman? What! shall France have conquered all the powers subsidized by England during three coalitions, to see imposed upon her conditions as unjust as they are dishonourable, notwithstanding the moderation and generosity which she has shown?

His excellency Mr. Fox himself proposed that "the peace should be honourable to both courts, and to their respective allies."

His majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, could not consider the peace as honourable, if, by one of its conditions, he was to lose a single subject, and of however little importance the colony of Tobago may be, it suffices, that it made part of the French empire at the time his majesty took the reigns of the government, to prevent his ever signing a treaty in which the alienation of that colony, or of any other which belongs to him in the same manner, shall be comprized. No reasonable Englishman can have flattered himself with the contrary; and his majesty, in the position in which he stands, would, by consenting to it, lose the esteem of every brave and generous person, even among his enemies.

The undersigned is directed to declare that his majesty the emperor and king considers as a disgrace the very idea of a negotiation, founded on the *uti possidetis*. It is the more contrary to his principles, inasmuch as his majesty has restored his conquests, and that he should be now reigning over a population the double of that which he in fact governs, if at the conclusion of the treaties of peace which he made at the expiration of the several coalitions, he had taken the *uti possidetis* for his only principle.

The undersigned is also directed to declare, that the only conditions of negotiation which his majesty the emperor and king is willing to adopt, are those proposed in part by his excellency Mr. Fox, contained in the letter which was addressed to him on the 2d of June by the minister for foreign

affairs, and repeated in the twelfth paragraph of the present note.

His majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, requires nothing of Great Britain which can be contrary to the interests of her allies. He is entitled to expect that nothing will be exacted of him which can be contrary to the interests of his own allies.

The undersigned is directed to add, that he refers to what had been prepared by the mutual efforts of his excellency the earl of Yarmouth and the undersigned.

If peace shall not be re-established, it is not France who can be accused of having changed, but England: although peace between France and Russia, and other events unfavourable to Great Britain, have taken place since the negociation was entered upon and nearly brought to a conclusion, in concert with his excellency the earl of Yarmouth.

From the Earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to General Clarke, dated Paris, August 9th, 1806.

The undersigned plenipotentiaries of his Britannic majesty cannot allow themselves to enter into a detailed consideration of the official note, dated the 8th of August, which has just been delivered to them on the part of his excellency general Clarke. From the manner in which the different points which form the subject of this note are treated, it would be impossible for them to discuss them with that calmness and that regard to propriety, which the character with which their sovereign has invested them demands. But the subject of this note is of a nature so general, and so foreign to the object under discussion, that it would be perfectly useless to take it into consideration at the present moment.

The undersigned the earl of Lauderdale, far from thinking that the manner of discussing in writing the fundamental points of a negotiation can in any shape increase the difficulty of coming to an understanding, is, on the contrary, of opinion, that he already perceives evident proofs of its utility, inasmuch as the official note presented by him since his arrival has brought the negotiation to an unequivocal issue, and put an end to those misunderstandings, without doubt real, which have taken place, and which never could have occurred if the same method had been adopted at the commencement of the negotiation.

The undersigned the earl of Yarmouth finds himself compelled to recur to the manner in which it has been stated to him, that he landed at Calais invested with a public character to treat for peace. He only came to give in person, and *viva voce*, the answer to a communication that he had been requested to make to the English government, founded upon the basis of the *uti possidetis*, in conformity with the following words of his excellency M. Talleyrand: "We ask nothing from you;" accompanied with positive assurances that the restitution of the possessions of his majesty in Germany would meet with no opposition. The same sentiment also recurs in the letter from M. Talleyrand to Mr. Fox of the first of April, in these terms: "The emperor covets nothing that England possesses."

The earl of Yarmouth feels himself under an equal necessity of not passing over in silence the

remarks made by his excellency general Clarke, on the subject of the delays of the negotiation, and of the frequent communication by messengers. The answers of his Britannic majesty have ever been frank and prompt; and if the number of messengers has been considerable, it can only be attributed to motives foreign to the wishes of his majesty.

The undersigned the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth can by no means subscribe to the opinion held out by his excellency general Clarke in the said note, that the negotiation "had been begun and nearly brought to a conclusion" in the interval which elapsed between the time when lord Yarmouth officially communicated his full powers, and the arrival of lord Lauderdale; on the contrary, they consider the negotiation as having scarcely commenced. The conversations to which allusion has been made, consisted, on the part of the French plenipotentiaries, in making demands which the undersigned the earl of Yarmouth has uniformly declared to be inadmissible; and, on the part of lord Yarmouth, in keeping strictly within the bounds of the *uti possidetis*, not having any instructions on the part of his government to admit any other conditions of negotiation; conditions suggested by France in the communication made by the earl of Yarmouth, and previously announced in M. Talleyrand's letter of the 1st of April.

The undersigned earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth think it unnecessary in this place to repeat the motives set forth in the official note presented by lord Lauderdale, and which induced his majesty to consider the basis of the *uti possidetis* proposed by France peculiarly applicable to the respective situation of the two countries. It is to them a subject of deep regret that, by so absolute and decided a departure from that basis on the part of the French government, the hopes and expectations of the two nations must be entirely frustrated.

It only remains for the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to declare, that his majesty, ever ready to listen to just and honourable conditions of peace, relies with confidence upon the means which he derives from the loyalty and affection of his subjects. He will never listen to any proposals of negotiation whatsoever, upon terms incompatible with the honour of his crown, and the real interests of his subjects.

From Messrs. Champagny and Clarke to the Earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated Paris, August 11th, 1806.

The undersigned ministers have read with attention the note dated the 9th of August, addressed to them by their excellencies the plenipotentiaries of his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in which they again propose the *uti possidetis* as the basis of the negotiation.

The French plenipotentiaries know not whether, by the adoption of this principle, England would obtain the right of exacting from the French government, for herself and her allies, every restitution which may suit her convenience, without being bound to make any restitution to France and her allies of the conquests which she has made. This demand would be so extraordinary,

that it would be equivalent to saying that France should sign all the conditions which it may please the English plenipotentiaries to commit to writing. One cannot suppose that such is really the intention of the English ministry.—They have not sent over plenipotentiaries for the sole purpose of requiring the admission of an indefinite basis which would render them masters of all the conditions of the treaty. In a state of things so obscure, the French plenipotentiaries demand such explanations as may enable them to understand, and to proceed in the negociation. These consist in making known what are the conquests which England wishes to keep, what are those which she will restore to France and her allies, and what conquests of France she requires to be restored. This will unfold a system of compensation, which may give a clear idea of the principles and intentions of the British cabinet. The French plenipotentiaries will then know what engagements they contract in adopting the basis which is proposed to them; for they can certainly never consent to this adoption without knowing what is demanded of them.

In laying down the principle of *uti possidetis*, have the English plenipotentiaries had it in view to propose a means of exchange and of compensation? If this is their meaning, the emperor adopts it, because it appears to him conformable to the two principles already agreed upon by both parties, in the letters of the French minister for foreign affairs, and of the English secretary of state for the department of foreign affairs, viz.:

1st. To the principle laid down by Mr. Fox, in his letter of the 26th March last, "That the object of both parties ought to be, that the peace should be honourable for both, and their respective allies; and at the same time of a nature to insure, as far as should be in their power, the future tranquillity of Europe."

2d. To the principle subjoined to the preceding by the minister for foreign affairs, in his letter of the 2d June following, which consists of an acknowledgment, in favour of the two parties, of the full right of intervention and of guaranty in continental and in maritime affairs.

The undersigned take this opportunity of renewing to their excellencies the plenipotentiaries of his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland the assurance of their high consideration.

From the Earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to Messrs. Champagny and Clarke, dated Paris, August 11th, 1806. Eleven o'clock, P. M.

The undersigned plenipotentiaries of his Britannic majesty would not have delayed their answer to the note of this day's date, addressed to them by their excellencies the plenipotentiaries of the French government; but as their reiterated demands to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs for passports, even for their messenger, remained unanswered, they thought it right first to ascertain whether they were still to enjoy an open and uninterrupted communication with their government, such as, in similar cases, has always been permitted by every government in Europe.

The explanations which the

undersigned have received from his excellency the minister for foreign affairs induce them to hope, that a like delay will, on no occasion whatever, again take place.

After having mutually considered the note of their excellencies the plenipotentiaries of the French government, the undersigned have to remark, that the British government, far from pretending to "exact from the French government every restitution which may suit their convenience, without being bound to make any restitution to France," never expressed any other wish than that of treating with the French government on the basis which was proposed to them by France herself, as it is expressed in the note of lord Lauderdale, viz., "to treat generally upon the basis of *uti possidetis*, which was to be scrupulously observed, except in the case of Hanover, which was proposed to be ceded to his Britannic majesty with all its dependencies."

They must also observe, that if it were possible to mistake the result which would necessarily follow from this principle, the verbal discussions which took place on the 9th instant, between the French plenipotentiaries and the undersigned, leave no room for doubt, whether the proposition thus laid down was perfectly understood by those plenipotentiaries.

The undersigned have therefore only to repeat, that they cannot, consistently with the instructions of their government, do otherwise than insist upon the previous recognition of this principle. It is on this condition alone that they are authorized to continue the negotiation.

As soon as this principle shall be agreed to, the undersigned will be ready to proceed to the discussion of the other points mentioned in the note of lord Lauderdale.

It only remains for the undersigned to add, that if the French government expresses a disposition to adhere to the proposal, such as his Britannic majesty understands it to have been made by them, they shall congratulate themselves as on a most fortunate event; an event which promises (according to the expression of Mr. Fox, quoted by their excellencies) "a peace honourable for the two nations, and at the same time of a nature to insure the future tranquillity of Europe."

From Secretary Fox to the Earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, August 14th, 1806.

MY LORDS,

His majesty's servants have observed, from the dispatches received this day, that some insinuation has been thrown out by the French government, of a disposition on the part of this country to gain some unfair advantage by the employment of two plenipotentiaries in the present discussions. That government has since taken the obvious mode of counteracting this advantage (if any such there was) by naming on their part also a second plenipotentiary. But the king's government is desirous, while it adheres steadily to the substance of those points which are thought fit to be insisted on for the honour and interest of his majesty's crown, to leave no pretence for cavils as to the form in which these discussions are carried on. The advantage which was to be looked to from the personal

share which the earl of Yarmouth originally had in these transactions, as the bearer of the overtures made by France, has now ceased; and, while his lordship has, on the one hand, properly recorded his decisive testimony as to the reality of these overtures, and as to the exact terms of peace so offered, the French government has, on the other hand, not only refused to adhere to those offers, but has expressly declared, that they never can even have entered into their thoughts. "It never could have entered into the thoughts of his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, to take for the basis of the negotiation the *uti possidetis*."

In this state of things the king's servants are not aware of any benefits that would be likely to result to his majesty's service from imposing on lord Yarmouth any further duty in this respect; nor do they wish that any such ground for cavil as I have before alluded to, however unfounded it would be, should be left to the enemy.

They have, therefore, submitted it as their humble advice to his majesty, that, in case of the continuance of the negotiations, the French minister should be informed, that they will henceforth be conducted by the earl of Lauderdale alone, the earl of Yarmouth having obtained his majesty's gracious permission to return to England; but that his majesty does not, on his part, make any objection to lord Lauderdale's treating with both the persons who have been named by the French government for that trust: a proof perfectly decisive, in all its parts, that no unfair advantage, such as the French government appears to apprehend, can have been in the king's contemplation*.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Champagny and Clarke, dated Paris, August 29th, 1806.

The undersigned plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, being on the point of renewing with their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries the conferences of the 26th instant, thinks himself obliged to lay before their excellencies the state of the negotiation, such as it stood after the note transmitted on the part of the undersigned and of the earl of Yarmouth on the 12th instant. Their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries will perceive from this statement, that the discussion is come to a point which will no longer permit the undersigned to continue it, unless, by the admission of the only basis on which he is authorized to negotiate, their excellencies should afford him fresh motives to justify such a determination.

In the official note transmitted to their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries on the 12th of August, it was observed to them, "that the British government, far from pretending to exact from the French government every restitution which may suit their convenience, without being bound to make any restitution to France, never expressed any other wish than that of treating with the French government on the basis which was proposed to her by France herself; as it is expressed in the note of lord Lauderdale, viz., "to treat generally upon the

* This was Mr. Fox's last letter.

basis of *uti possidetis*, which was to be scrupulously observed, except in the case of Hanover, which was proposed to be ceded to his Britannic majesty, with all its dependencies."

"That even if it were possible to mistake the result which would necessarily follow from this principle, the verbal discussions which took place on the 9th instant, between the French plenipotentiaries and the undersigned, leave no room to doubt, whether the proposition thus laid down was perfectly understood by those plenipotentiaries.

"The undersigned have therefore only to repeat, that they cannot, consistently with the instructions of their government, do otherwise than insist upon the previous recognition of this principle. It is on this condition alone that they are authorized to continue the negotiation."

This note remained without answer till the 25th of that month, when their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries informed the undersigned by a letter, that, "the plenipotentiaries of his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, wishing to confer with his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, his Britannic majesty's plenipotentiary, upon the subject of the last note his excellency addressed to them, request his lordship will call at the office of the minister of the interior to-morrow about three o'clock in the afternoon, where they will meet, provided the hour is convenient to his excellency."

The undersigned forbears making any observations on the length of the interval which elapsed between the sending the note of the 11th and the period when it was answered; as well as on the manner in which their excellencies avoided entering into discussion in writing on the contents of that note, according to the usage of all times, and of all countries, whenever affairs of such importance are in question. He confines himself to remark that, when, after so long a delay, the undersigned accepted an invitation from their excellencies to renew the discussions, in the hope of receiving at length the decision of the French government on the contents of the official note of the 11th, the conference appeared to tend on the part of their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries solely to engage the undersigned to present the detailed project of a treaty.

The undersigned, jointly with the earl of Yarmouth, had already, in the note of the 11th instant, formally declared, that, until France had adopted the basis such as the British government understood it to have been originally proposed by her, he could not enter into a detailed negotiation. If indeed the undersigned could have forgot himself so far as to accede to the proposition made at the last conference by their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries, it would not only have been necessary, for that purpose, that he should have abandoned the only conditions which his instructions authorized him to admit, as the basis of the negotiation, but moreover that he should expose himself to a manifest contradiction, in presenting at first an entire project of a treaty, the details of which were to result from the negotiation itself; a negotiation which the undersigned has declar-

ed that he could not enter upon till after a previous acknowledgement of the basis in question.

In this state of things the undersigned, after having attended, conformably to the desire of their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries, at the conferences which they proposed to him; after having maturely reflected on all the communications which he has received from their excellencies, and thus fully convinced himself, that the present views of the French government are far different from those which his Britannic majesty had a right to expect from them; in a word, that the continuance of the present negotiation can henceforth have no other effect than that of keeping up, in both nations, a hope which cannot be realized, the undersigned thinks it his duty formally to declare to their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries, the resolution which he has taken, in conformity to the instructions of his sovereign, to put an end to his mission. The admission, in writing, of the basis so often brought forward by the undersigned, can alone occasion a change in his determination.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, August 30th, 1806.—Received September 3d.

SIR,

When I reflect on the contents of the dispatch I had the honour of making up for you yesterday, I cannot help anticipating the surprize with which you must receive the intelligence, that I am now under an engagement to renew the conference with the plenipotentiaries of France, on Thursday the 4th of September.

On going yesterday, at three o'clock, to the office of the minister of the interior, I confess I did not foresee the possibility of any thing occurring that could prevent my executing the resolution I had formed, of demanding passports this morning, and of returning immediately to England. I trust I need scarcely assure you, that I have as strong an impression as any man can have, of the bad consequences that may attend exhibiting any thing which looks like versatility of conduct; and yet, under the circumstances in which I found myself placed, I am satisfied I had no choice, and that I could not refuse, with propriety, the solicitations of the French plenipotentiaries to renew the conference.

At the commencement of our interview, I perceived a disposition to greater cordiality than I had hitherto experienced. To M. de Champagny's inquiry, whether they had been fortunate enough, by what they had said, to induce me to deliver the project of a treaty, I answered, by recalling to his recollection, the reasons I had formerly stated for declining such a proceeding till the basis that had originally been proposed was again formally recognized; and I informed him, that, in order to give them an accurate view of my conception of the subject, I had prepared a note which I wished to submit to them, delivering to them the note, a copy of which I had the honour of inclosing in my dispatch of August 29th.

After reading this note, and observing in general that they did not know whether, if we should come

to a particular explanation, we might not arrive at a conclusion coincident in its effect with the object I had in view, when I insisted on the general principle, they entered into a detail with respect to the necessity of some immediate determination on the subject of Hanover, and afterwards stated their views as to the French possessions in the East Indies, the Dutch colonies, St. Lucie, and Tobago; on all of which, they talked in a style so perfectly different from any thing I had before heard, that I should not be more surprized if, at our next conferrence, they were to give them up, than I was at the change of tone manifested on this occasion.

A great deal more passed in the way of general conversation; all of which tended to show me, that, although they were still at a wide distance from such terms as I could accede to, they had wonderfully relaxed from the tone they had antecedently assumed.

M. de Champagny then invited me to name a day for resuming our conference. To this I decidedly objected, admitting, at the same time, that they had made concessions in the course of our discussion; but adding, that they were still so far from agreeing to admit what the English government uniformly conceived the original proposition to have conveyed, that I could not yet indulge any hopes of our coming to an agreement, and should therefore feel it necessary to terminate my mission.

M. de Champagny asked me with some warmth, whether I wished for peace on the terms which I myself had stated? whether I thought myself authorized, after the concessions they had just made, to refuse them time to consider how much further they might go; and whether I might not reasonably entertain hopes that, with a little time, the differences which appeared now to separate us might vanish?

On receiving such a remonstrance, I thought it impossible not to agree to a renewal of the conference: and, after some conversation, Thursday was fixed for the day of our meeting.

From Earl Spencer to the Earl of Lauderdale, dated Downing-street, September 4th, 1806.

MY LORD,

I am commanded by his majesty to inform your lordship that he is pleased to approve entirely the conduct you have held in the circumstances detailed in your last dispatches, and to express his majesty's satisfaction in the good effect which appears to have resulted from it.

It is proper, however, to remark, that as the French plenipotentiaries have not bound themselves as yet by any written note, nor have even in conversation agreed to replace the negotiation on its true basis; the present appearances of greater facility on their part may probably arise only from their desire of keeping your lordship at Paris till the answer from Petersburgh shall be received; an object which your lordship's last note had shown them they could no longer accomplish without some departure from the ground on which they have hitherto stood.

If the Russian treaty shall not be ratified, his majesty is then (as I have already observed to your lordship) replaced with re-

spect to the emperor of Russia in the same situation as before the signature of M. d'Oubril's treaty; but with the additional tie, which the two courts would in that case feel from the fresh proofs each will have given to the other of a steady adherence to the system of alliance; and it will then be necessary that our peace shall be so far made dependent on that of Russia as is pointed out in the instructions originally given to lord Yarmouth.

Since the above was written, we have received the important intelligence contained in the indorsed papers*, copies of which I have thought it necessary to forward to you without a moment's delay for your information; the case is already provided for in this dispatch, and, in the present state of our information on the subject, I have nothing to add to what is above stated. A few days will now probably put us in possession of the further views and intentions of Russia, to which reference might of course be had in every succeeding stage of the negotiation; and as I shall lose no time in transmitting to your lordship such fresh instructions as those may give rise to, so we shall be anxious to hear as soon as possible from you what effect this event may produce on the disposition of the French government.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Secretary Fox, dated Paris, September 4th, 1806.—Received September 7th.

SIR,

In my last dispatch I informed you, that in consequence of the solicitations of the plenipotentiaries of France, urged in the manner I there stated to you, I had consented to a renewal of the conference this day at three o'clock.

About half past two I received from M. Talleyrand a note, a copy of which, as well as of my answer, I now inclose.

On going to M. Talleyrand's office, I found him just returned from St. Cloud. He began by informing me that till yesterday they had received no certain information from Petersburg; but that the courier who arrived last night, had brought intelligence that the emperor had positively refused to ratify the treaty. He stated that he had the emperor's orders to say that this change of circumstances would certainly induce him to make peace with England on more favourable terms than he would otherwise have at present consented to; and further to declare, that as he would find it necessary to give to his plenipotentiaries new instructions, so he thought it proper to communicate this to me, that I might write to my court to receive also such further instructions as they might think proper to give.

In answer to a question which I asked, whether there was any reason to expect the arrival of any minister to renew the negotiation on the part of Russia, he said that no information on that subject had been received. On taking leave, I assured M. Talleyrand that I should report to you the apparent openness with which the communication had been made, and that I should dispatch a courier this evening with the information.

From Secretary Windham to the Earl of Lauderdale, dated Downing-street, September 10, 1806.

* Intelligence of the refusal of the emperor of Russia to ratify M. d'Oubril's treaty.

MY LORD,

Your lordship's dispatch of September 4th has not failed to engage his majesty's most serious attention. The language held by M. Talleyrand appears directed to the object of engaging his majesty in a separate negotiation, to the exclusion of Russia; but the interests both of this country and of Europe have always been considered here as essentially connected with the maintenance of the strictest union of councils and measures between his majesty and the emperor of Russia. It was with deep regret that his majesty saw the apparent violation of this principle in the separate treaty signed by M. d'Oubril; and he cannot but consider the steady and upright conduct of the emperor of Russia on that trying occasion, as imposing on his majesty a fresh obligation not to separate his interests from those of so honourable and faithful an ally.

Your lordship must therefore in the first place represent to the French government, that the refusal to ratify M. d'Oubril's treaty has replaced the two courts in their former state of close and intimate alliance; and that any attempt on the part of France to separate them must henceforth be considered as hopeless. She can now form no expectation that she can conclude peace with either of them, until the negotiation with the other shall be brought to the same conclusion.

In reverting to this resolution, his majesty does not, however, desire to carry the operation of this principle at all farther than before. He has no objection to its being understood, as was expressed to lord Yarmouth in Mr. Fox's letter of the 26th of June, that the two courts shall treat separately in form, but in substance in concert with each other.

In this mode of treating, the separate interests of Great Britain and France may as before be separately discussed between them. But his majesty is determined, as is expressed in the same dispatch, that he will not come to any final agreement without the consent of Russia: and that any arrangement of the points depending between him and France is to be considered as provisional, and subject to the case of a like arrangement to be made by his ally.

With respect to the separate interests of Great Britain, his majesty adheres to the basis originally proposed to him by France, and on which your lordship has so often had occasion to insist, that of the *uti possidetis* for the two powers and their allies in all parts of the world, with the single exception of the restitution of Hanover, as having been originally attacked on grounds which cannot be defended.

This is the offer of France as originally made to his majesty; it is the demand on which his majesty still thought fit to insist, when apparently abandoned by Russia; and his majesty has no desire of increasing it under circumstances, which, according to the avowal of France herself, entitled his majesty to expect more favourable conditions than France has lately been inclined to accede to. The *uti possidetis* thus described, must however now of necessity include the kingdom of Sicily.

Every endeavour was made in the outset of the negotiation to obtain the restitution of Naples to his Sicilian majesty; and the

grounds on which it was thought fit finally to desist from that claim on the part of his majesty are detailed in the correspondence of this office with lord Yarmouth and your lordship.

But the case of Sicily was always deemed to be widely different from that of Naples. Our actual occupation of that island brings it fully within the benefit of the *uti possidetis*. And recent events have shown how very distant are the hopes of conquest in that quarter, which were so much relied upon in one of the notes presented to your lordship by the French plenipotentiaries.

Lord Yarmouth had been uniformly instructed to insist on this demand as a *sine qua non* condition of all arrangements for peace. On the refusal of France to accede to this claim, his lordship had actually, in pursuance of those instructions, demanded his passports, and it was not in the smallest degree departed from or relaxed until a desire was expressed to him by M. d'Oubril, that this government would listen to proposals for an equivalent to be given for Sicily. In compliance with the supposed wishes of his ally, and on that ground alone, his majesty consented to entertain the consideration of such an equivalent, but none has ever been suggested that appeared at all likely to meet the just expectations which his Sicilian majesty would have been entitled to form on that head. And his majesty has now the satisfaction of learning, that the sentiments of his ally have in fact never been different from his own on this point; and that the preservation of Sicily is considered in Russia, as well as in England, as a just condition of any peace with France. On both these grounds, therefore, both on the principle adopted for his own negotiation, and on the ground of his determination not to separate himself from Russia, his majesty thinks it absolutely necessary to maintain this point with the same firmness which he had originally manifested respecting it.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Earl Spencer, dated Paris, Sept. 18th, 1806.—Received Sept. 22.

MY LORD,

On Monday, about five o'clock, M. Talleyrand called, and, though I was very ill at the time, I resolved to admit him. He sat upwards of half an hour. The outline of his conversation consisted in his expressing a desire to have a full communication with me, in his assuring me that if the difficulties in respect of form could be got over, he did not think the objections to the terms would be material, and that where peace was seriously in view, as it was with them, it figured as an object of such importance as to give a disposition to accommodate about conditions: in a word, that he had little doubt that he and I would arrange the business.

On my part, I stated, that I was afraid he proceeded on the supposition that I might give way in some of the points in question, which I thought it fair to assure him at once was impossible. I stated to him generally the demands I was to make on the part of England, which would no way vary from the terms we had originally understood to have been proposed; and that he must expect I would be as positive in rela-

tion to the conditions for Russia, with which he was acquainted, as I should be with respect to any point more peculiarly of British interest. I then thought it right to introduce the subject of my having no powers from Russia, observing that, although there might be some irregularity in this mode of proceeding, yet that, under all the circumstances of the present case, it seemed unavoidable, because the principle and feelings of his majesty would never permit him to think of treating, but in such a manner as might insure to the court of Petersburgh an honourable peace, at the moment that peace should be concluded between England and France; and that unless I could be allowed to state the objects of Russia, this could be hardly effected.

He assured me that they would wave all objections with regard to form, and that they would be perfectly ready to hear me on the subject of a treaty of peace with Russia: his objection to my proposal being founded, not on the circumstance of my wanting powers from Russia, but on the very unusual proposal of concluding a treaty, which, when signed, was only to take place in a certain event. I mentioned to him that the same thing had been done at Paris in 1782, when Mr. Oswald concluded a treaty of peace with Dr. Franklin and Mr. Adams.

During the whole of this conversation, I had gone even out of my way to repeat to him the necessity of his laying his account with my adhering rigidly to the terms I had detailed; and yet he left me with such expressions as could not fail to create a belief, that he intended to accede to my propositions.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Paris, September 13th, 1806.

The undersigned, plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, lost no time in transmitting to his court the communication which his excellency the minister for foreign affairs made to him on Thursday the 4th instant; and he now hastens to reply to that communication, by informing his excellency of the line of conduct his majesty has thought proper to direct him to pursue under the present circumstances.

His Britannic majesty, ever anxious to maintain the intimate connection and alliance which subsist between his majesty and the emperor of all the Russias, naturally finds in the recent conduct of his illustrious ally, and in the proofs which he has lately afforded of the interest which he takes in the welfare of Great Britain, and in the general happiness of Europe, additional motives not to separate, in any case, his interests from those of the court of St. Petersburgh.

It is not, however, the intention of his majesty to carry this principle further than the earl of Yarmouth was instructed to carry it by Mr. Fox, in his lordship's communications with the French government. There is nothing to prevent the interests of Great Britain and of France from being treated separately: only his majesty does not authorize the undersigned to sign any treaty except provisionally: such treaty not to have its full effect until peace shall have been concluded between that faithful ally of Great Britain and France. It is upon these conditions alone that the

undersigned is at present authorized to negotiate.

The undersigned has orders to add, that his Britannic majesty, fully acquainted with the desire entertained by the court of St. Petersburgh for peace upon conditions reciprocally honourable and advantageous, and at the same time compatible with the interests of Europe, has authorized him to impart to the French plenipotentiaries the conditions upon which Russia (according to the full and perfect knowledge his Britannic majesty has of the intentions of that court) would be willing to negociate with the French government; to reduce them into the form of a treaty in the event of their being agreed to on both sides; and to insert an article in the provisional treaty between Great Britain and France, by which his Britannic majesty should engage to employ his mediation, for the purpose of obtaining the accession of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias to the said treaty.

The undersigned is aware that he ought to make the official communication of the conditions to the French plenipotentiaries; in the mean time, and for the satisfaction of his excellency the minister of foreign affairs, he has no difficulty in telling him that they will be in substance the same as those which have already been communicated to his excellency by his excellency baron de Budberg.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Earl Spencer, dated Paris, September 19th, 1806.—Received September 22d.

MY LORD,

At one o'clock, this day, monsieur Talleyrand called on me, according to the appointment which I announced to your lordship in my last dispatch. I immediately perceived, that his plan was to exhibit extreme civility, which no one knows better how to execute.

After some time spent in compliments, and in condolence on the great loss the world had sustained, he told me, that as I had insisted on an answer in writing, one was prepared, which contained a declaration consonant to what he supposed me to wish on the two most material points. First, that the emperor was willing to admit of an article being introduced to answer the objects I had in view in relation to Russia, and to instruct his plenipotentiaries to hear me with respect to the interests of that power. Secondly, that France would be ready to make great concessions for the purpose of obtaining peace.

After some conversation, all tending to impress me with the idea that peace was their main object, and that they were even ready to make any sacrifice to secure it, he produced the paper to which he had alluded, and which I had at first understood he meant to transmit to me when he should go home.

Before he opened it, he looked at me, and said, that there was a mixture in it of what perhaps I should not like, but that I must take the evil with the good. He begged that I would allow him to read it through without interrupting him. When he had finished, I said, that I should of course send such an answer as I thought becoming and proper. I told him, and I trust, with perfect temper and seeming indifference, that the most important thing for me to know, was, whether these concessions would be to the extent of

allowing us to retain what they had originally proposed? He answered, that the emperor would leave every thing open to the plenipotentiaries.

Note delivered by M. Talleyrand to the Earl of Lauderdale, dated Paris, September 18th, 1806.

The undersigned, the minister for foreign affairs, has laid before his majesty the emperor, king of Italy, the note which his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, minister plenipotentiary from his Britannic majesty, did him the honour to address to him on the 13th of this month.

His majesty the emperor and king sees with regret that the negotiation seems to take every day a retrograde course, and he is at a loss to discover what point the English government wish to attain.

In the first instance, obsolete forms were brought forward and urged for our acceptance, the text and the substance of which had never been admitted, nor even discussed, by the French government; and when this difficulty appeared to be removed, and the French plenipotentiaries held out a prospect of sacrifices which proved more and more the desire of their government for peace, points antecedent to the negotiation were recurred to, and a question was started again which had been three times decided: first, by the powers given to M. d'Oubril, with which his Britannic majesty's plenipotentiaries were acquainted, afterwards by the powers given to the earl of Yarmouth, and lastly, for the third time, by those of the earl of Lauderdale. One might have supposed that a discussion, terminated before the first conference of the respective negotiators, and decided even by the very fact of their negotiation, would not again be brought forward.

His majesty the emperor, wishing however to give a fresh proof of his uniform desire for the re-establishment of peace, adheres to the following proposal: that the negotiations between France and England shall continue; that the minister plenipotentiary of his majesty the king of Great Britain shall be at liberty to introduce into the treaty, either as a public or a secret article, or in any other form which would answer the same end, whatever he may conceive would tend to reconcile the existing differences between France and Russia, and would procure for the latter a participation in the benefits of peace, it being well understood, that no proposals shall be admitted except such as are respectively honourable, and are not injurious to the real power and the dignity of the two empires; and that we shall not see again brought forward the extraordinary proposals which M. de Novosiltzoff was charged to make on the part of Russia, and which having marked the origin of a coalition conquered and destroyed in its birth, ought equally to be forgotten with the coalition itself. There are proposals which, being only the result of blind confidence, and of a species of infatuation, and being founded neither on the real force of the parties, nor on their geographical situation, are deprived of a pacific character, and carry with them their own condemnation.

France ought neither to abandon the interests of the Ottoman

empire, nor a position which enables her to sustain that empire against the aggressions with which she is openly menaced by Russia; but as all the objects destined to enter into the arrangements of the treaty must be reserved for discussion, the undersigned will not seek to anticipate the result which it may produce.

If, after the changes which have taken place in the cabinet of his Britannic majesty, peace is still wished for in England, peace may be made, and that without delay. The emperor will not hesitate to make some sacrifices in order to accelerate it, and to render it durable; but if the dispositions for peace should have changed in London, if the wise and liberal views manifested in the first communications which took place with the illustrious minister, whom both nations lament, should no longer prevail, a vague discussion, immoderate pretensions, and ambiguous proposals, wide of that tone of frankness and dignity necessary to conduce to a real reconciliation, would only have the effect of producing more irritation, and would be unworthy of both nations. France does not pretend to dictate either to Russia or to England, but she will be dictated to by neither of these powers. Let the conditions be equal, just, and moderate, and the peace is concluded; but if an imperious and exaggerating disposition is evinced, if pre-eminence is affected, if, in a word, it is meant to dictate peace, the emperor and the French people will not even notice these proposals. Confiding in themselves, they will say, as a nation of antiquity answered its enemies, "*you demand our arms; come and take them.*"

From Lord Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Paris, September 19th, 1806.

The undersigned, plenipotentiary of his majesty the king of Great Britain, in answering the official note of his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, dated the 18th instant, which has been received to-day, begins by remarking, that he purposely abstains as much as possible from all observation upon those points contained in it which are foreign to the immediate object in question. By these means, he will avoid discussions of a nature to lead him to forget that tone of moderation which it is his duty to observe in the whole course of his ministry. He will thus maintain the line of conduct which is conformable to that love of peace, which characterizes all the proceedings of the king his master.

When the undersigned reflects that he came to Paris, authorized to conclude peace upon terms understood to have been proposed by France: that notwithstanding the refusal of his imperial majesty of all the Russias to ratify the treaty signed by M. d'Oubril, and the splendid successes obtained by his majesty's arms in Spanish America, he was authorized to give assurances that the demands of his court in its own favour would not in consequence of these successes be materially increased; the undersigned had reason to be surprized at finding his government charged with manifesting an "imperious and exaggerating disposition." He is not less astonished, that his excellency, in replying to a note in which lord Lauderdale had the honour of explaining distinctly to him, that the conditions

pointed out by his excellency baron de Budberg, were in substance what would be insisted upon by Great Britain in favour of Russia, should have thought it necessary to reprobate so strongly conditions proposed by M. de Novosiltzoff under totally different circumstances, and of the nature of which the undersigned is entirely ignorant.

Nevertheless, after the explanations given by the undersigned to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, and the declaration made by him to his excellency, that the undersigned is not authorized to negotiate otherwise than so as to ensure the conclusion of a peace with Great Britain and with Russia at the same moment; and, after having received, in the official note of yesterday's date, assurances that the French government does not refuse the admission of an article, the design of which shall be to provide for this indispensable object, the undersigned will make no difficulty in resuming the conferences with their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries, as soon as their excellencies shall be duly authorized for this purpose.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Earl Spencer, dated Paris, September 26th, 1806.—Received September 28.

Nothing material happened after the conference with M. Talleyrand, which I detailed in my dispatch of the 19th instant, till the 22d, when I received from him a communication, informing me that the emperor having thought general Clarke's services near his person necessary in a journey he was about to undertake immediately, M. de Champagny would be instructed to conduct singly on the part of France the business of the negotiation in future.

On the 23d, being anxious that the negotiation should proceed as soon as possible, I took the opportunity of M. de Champagny's sending to enquire after my health, to urge him, in writing, to renew the conferences without farther loss of time. Your lordship will find a copy of my letter together with his answer enclosed.

On the 24th I received from M. Talleyrand an answer to the demand I had made for an explanation on the subject of passports, in my letter of the 22d. This communication I think it proper also to transmit to your lordship.

On the 25th, at one o'clock, M. de Champagny called on me, as had been previously agreed, for the purpose of renewing the conferences.

After the usual interchange of civilities, he proceeded to say, that, to secure peace, the emperor had determined to make great sacrifices.

1*st, That Hanover with its dependencies should be restored to his majesty.*

2*d, That the possession of Malta should be confirmed to Great Britain.*

3*d, That France would interfere with Holland to confirm to his majesty the absolute possession of the Cape.*

4*th, That the emperor would confirm to his majesty the possession of Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Mahee, and the other dependent comptoirs.*

5*th, That as Tobago was ori-*

ginally settled by the English, it was meant also to give that island to the crown of Great Britain.

To all this he added, that what he had now said proceeded on the supposition, that Sicily was to be ceded, and that the French government proposed that his Sicilian majesty should have as indemnity, not only the Balearic islands, but should also receive an annuity from the court of Spain to enable him to support his dignity.

I here interrupted him, expressing my surprize, after the full explanation I had with M. Talleyrand on that very point, that the possibility of our giving up Sicily should be mentioned again; that the guarantee of the king of the two Sicilies was as much an object with England as M. Talleyrand knew it to be with Russia: and that I was happy to take the opportunity of stating to him fairly, that I felt myself bound to consider the obtaining for Russia the arrangement which she desired, as an object more interesting, if possible, to England, than those points which he considered as peculiarly connected with her own interests.

He informed me, that there was no clause in his instructions empowering him to hear me on the part of Russia; but that he had seen M. Talleyrand's note to me, and, being satisfied that this was an accidental omission, which could be forthwith remedied, he had no objection to proceed, as if such a clause had been inserted.

It was agreed that I should go to him to-day at two o'clock to renew the conference.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Earl Spencer, dated Paris, September 26th, 1806.—Received September 28th.

MY LORD,

In conformity with my engagement made yesterday, which I had the honour of mentioning to your lordship in my former dispatch of this date, I waited on M. Champagny this afternoon at two o'clock.

He informed me that the accidental omission in his instructions had been remedied, and that he had now powers to talk with me on the interests of Russia, with a view to arrange the conditions on which France would make peace with that country: but he, at the same time, proposed, that we should, in the first instance, talk over the terms of peace between France and England.

I observed, that as the greatest difficulties in our last conference seemed to arise from the conditions I had proposed as necessary to be granted to Russia; and as England was resolved not to make peace without obtaining for Russia all the objects on which she insisted, I thought the more natural order would be, to resume our conversation on these last topics.

A long discussion accordingly ensued, which ended in his informing me that, on the subject of concession to Russia, he was authorized to communicate to me, that the government of France was willing, in addition to the treaty made by M. d'Oubril, to cede to that power the full sovereignty of the island of Corfu; but that he had no authority to go any farther.

I then informed him that I was sorry to learn that the negotiation was at an end; for that my instruc-

tions were precise, and that I should feel it my duty, the moment I left him, to state to M. Talleyrand, that all hopes having vanished of bringing the negotiation to a favourable issue, I had only now to request passports for my return to England.

After strong expressions of mutual regard, he attended me to the outer room, where he again proposed a renewal of our conferences, in case his government should give him new instructions.

My answer was, that I had no choice in immediately applying for passports; but that, as long as I remained in this country, I never would refuse to see him; and that if, before my departure, he should come with powers to grant all the objects on which I had explained myself, I should feel the greatest satisfaction, though, at that moment, I thought any appointment perfectly unnecessary.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to Talleyrand, dated Paris, Sept. 26th, 1806.

SIR,

I lose not a moment in acquainting your excellency that the result of the conference which I have had to day with his excellency M. de Champagny, unfortunately leaves me no hope of being able to bring the negotiation, on the part of Great Britain and of Russia, to a favourable issue.

In this state of things, and according to my instructions, no part remains for me to take but to address myself to your excellency for passports, for my return into the presence of my sovereign.

From Talleyrand to the Earl of Lauderdale, dated Mentz, October 1st, 1806.

His majesty, after having, from a desire of peace, listened to every proposition which could have rendered it durable and of reciprocal advantage to the two contracting powers, and to their allies, will see with pain the rupture of a negotiation, to which his own disposition had led him to hope a more favourable conclusion. If the English cabinet is resolved to forego the prospect of a peace, and if his Britannic majesty's minister plenipotentiary must depart from France, his majesty still flatters himself that the English cabinet and lord Lauderdale will, when they shall measure the extent of the sacrifices which he was disposed to make, in order to facilitate the return of a sincere reconciliation, be convinced that his majesty, in order to promote the happiness of the world, would not hesitate between any advantages in comparison with those to be expected from peace; and that the desire to insure its benefits to his people could alone have determined his paternal heart to make sacrifices not only of self-love but of power, more considerable than even the opinion of the English nation could have pointed out in the midst of a war, in which he had obtained constant advantages without any mixture of reverse. If, however, it is the destiny of the emperor and of the French nation still to live in the midst of the wars and tumults, which the policy and influence of England have raised, his majesty, having done every thing to put a stop to the calamities of war, finding himself deceived in his dearest hopes, relies on the justice of his cause, on the courage, the affection, the power of his people. At the same time calling to mind the dispositions

which he has ever expressed throughout the negotiation, his majesty cannot but see with regret, that England, who might have strengthened and confirmed her vast power by the blessings of peace, the want of which is felt by the present generation, and by the English people as well as all others, willingly suffers the most favourable opportunity of concluding it to pass by: the event will disclose whether a new coalition will be more disadvantageous to France than those which have preceded it. The event will also disclose whether those who complain of the grandeur and ambition of France should not impute to their own hatred and injustice this very grandeur and ambition of which they accuse her. The power of France has only been increased by the reiterated efforts to oppress her. Nevertheless, whatever inferences for the future may be drawn from the examples of the past, his majesty will be ready, should the negotiations with England be broken off, to renew them in the midst of any events. He will be ready to replace them on the basis laid in concert with the illustrious minister whom England has lost, who, having nothing to add to his glory except the reconciliation of the two nations, had conceived the hope of accomplishing it, but was snatched from the world in the midst of his work.

The undersigned has the honour to inform his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, that M. de Champagny has been authorized to deliver to him the passports which he has demanded.

From the Earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Paris, October 6th, 1806.

The undersigned, learning that his excellency M. de Champagny is authorized to grant him the passports which he has demanded, and which he is on the point of receiving, cannot refrain from observing to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, in answer to his note, that he has some difficulty in imagining from what circumstances his excellency has been able to infer, "that the British government have resolved to forego the prospect of peace."

The undersigned was sent to France to negotiate peace, at a time when the illustrious minister, to whom his excellency has paid so just a tribute of praise, presided over the department for foreign affairs. This great man then acted under the full conviction, that he had received from France an offer of peace on the basis of *uti possidetis*, with the sole exception of Hanover and of its dependencies in favour of his Britannic majesty. And, notwithstanding the success of the arms of his Britannic majesty, as well in Italy as on the continent of South America; and the refusal of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias to ratify that treaty, which in the eyes of the French government was equivalent to the most splendid victory; not one new proposition has been advanced on the part of his majesty, incompatible with the principle which was at first proposed by the French government, through the channel of the earl of Yarmouth, as the basis of a negotiation. It is not, surely, from such conduct that the inference can be drawn, "that the British government have resolved to forego the prospect of a peace."

Are the conditions which the undersigned was ordered to pro-

pose as the basis of a peace between his majesty the emperor of all the Russias and the French government more of a nature to have given rise to this suspicion? Quite the reverse. If a solid and durable peace was the object of the two powers, these were such conditions as justice and expediency demanded:—*justice*, because certainly nothing could be more equitable than to grant to his Sicilian majesty and to the king of Sardinia a compensation for their immense losses on the continent;—*expediency*, because, in order to insure the duration of peace, such an arrangement of boundaries as may prevent disputes must always be preferable to that which furnishes to one of the parties the means and the advantages of attack. It was on this principle that the proposed evacuation of Dalmatia and Albania by the French troops naturally suggested itself.

If, therefore, the undersigned has received orders to demand his passports, and to depart from France, it is certainly not because his sovereign wishes to renounce peace, but because his majesty finds himself *obliged to do so*; the French government not having consented to all the conditions which were comprised in the proposals originally made by them to his Britannic majesty; and having, moreover, rejected as the basis for the treaty with Russia the just and reasonable conditions which the undersigned was authorized to propose.

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE.

Ratisbon, August 2.

Whereas, his majesty the emperor of the French, and their majesties the kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, their electoral highnesses the arch-chancellor and the elector of Baden, his imperial highness the duke of Berg, and their highnesses the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, the princes of Nassau Weilbourg, and Nassau Usingen, of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, and Hohenzollern Siegmaringen, Salm-Salm, and Salm Kyrburg, Isenburg Birstein, and Lichtenstein, the duke of Ahremberg and the count of Leyden, being desirous to secure, through proper stipulations, the internal and external peace of southern Germany, which, as experience for a long period and recently has shown, can derive no kind of guarantee from the existing German constitution, have appointed to be their plenipotentiaries to this effect, namely, his majesty the emperor of the French, Ch. Maurice Talleyrand, duke of Benevento, minister of his foreign affairs; his majesty the king of Bavaria, his minister plenipotiary, A. Von Cetto; his majesty the king of Wirtemberg, his state minister, the count of Wintzingerode; the elector arch-chancellor, his ambassador extraordinary, the count of Beust; the elector of Baden, his cabinet minister, the baron of Reitzenstein; his imperial highness the duke of Berg, baron Von Schele; the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, his ambassador extraordinary, baron Von Pappenheim; the princes of Nassau Weilburg and Usingen, baron Von Gagern; the princes of Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Siegmaringen, major Von Fischer; the prince of Isenburg Birstein, his privy counsellor, M. Von Gretzen; the duke of Ahsemberg, and the count of Leyden, Mr. Durand St. Andre: who have agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. The states of the con-

tracting princes, enumerated as in the preamble, shall be for ever separated from the Germanic body, and united by a particular confederation, under the designation of "The Confederated States of the Empire."

II. All the laws of the empire, by which they have been hitherto bound, shall be in future null and without force, with the exception of the statutes relative to debts determined in the recess of the deputation of 1803, and in the paragraph upon the navigation to be funded upon the shipping tolls, which statutes shall remain in full vigour and execution.

III. Each of the contracting princes renounces such of his titles as refer to his connection with the German empire, and they will on the 1st of August declare their entire separation from it.

IV. The elector arch-chancellor shall take the title of prince primate and most eminent highness, which title shall convey no prerogative derogatory to the entire sovereignty which every one of the contracting princes shall enjoy.

V. The elector of Baden, the duke of Berg, and the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt shall take the titles of grand dukes, and enjoy the rights, honours, and prerogatives belonging to the kingly dignity. Their rank and precedence shall be in the same order as they are mentioned in article I. The chief of the houses of Nassau shall take the title of duke, and the count of Leyden that of prince.

VI. The affairs of the confederation shall be discussed in a congress of the union, whose place of sitting shall be in Frankfort, and the congress shall be divided into two colleges, the kings and the princes.

VII. The members of the league must be independent of every foreign power. They cannot in any wise enter into any other service but that of the states of the confederation and its allies. Those who have been hitherto in the service of a foreign power, and chuse to adhere to it, shall abdicate their principality in favour of one of their children.

VIII. Should any of the said princes be disposed to alienate the whole or any part of his sovereignty, he can only do it in favour of the confederates.

IX. All disputes which may arise among the members of the league shall be settled in the assembly at Frankfort.

X. In this the prince primate shall preside, and when it shall happen that the two colleges have to deliberate upon any subject, he shall then preside in the college of kings, and the duke of Nassau in that of the princes.

XI. The time when the congress of the league, or either of the colleges shall have particularly to assemble, the manner of the convocation, the subjects upon which they may have to deliberate, the manner of forming their conclusions, and putting them in execution, shall be determined in a fundamental statute, which the prince primate shall give in proposition, within a month after the notification presented at Ratisbon. This statute shall be approved of by the confederated states; this statute shall also regulate the respective rank of the members of the college of princes.

XII. The emperor shall be proclaimed protector of the confederation. On the demise of the primate, he shall, in such quality, as often name the successor.

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XII. The emperor shall be proclaimed protector of the confederation. On the demise of the primate, he shall, in such quality, as often name the successor.

XIII. His majesty the king of Bavaria cedes to the king of Wirtemberg the lordship of Wisensteig, and renounces the rights which he might have upon Weiblingen, on account of Burgau.

XIV. His majesty the king of Wirtemberg makes over to the grand duke of Berg the county of Bondorff, Breunlingen, and Villingen, the part of the territory of the latter city which lies on the right bank of the Brignetz, and the city of Tuttlingen, with the manor of the same name belonging to it on the right bank of the Danube.

XV. The grand duke of Baden cedes to the king of Wirtemberg the city and territory of Bieberach, with their dependencies.

XVI. The duke of Nassau cedes to the grand duke of Berg the city of Deutz and its territory.

XVII. His majesty the king of Bavaria shall unite to his states the city and territory of Nuremberg and the Teutonic comitials of Rohr and Waldstetten.

XVIII. His majesty the king of Wirtemberg shall receive the lordship of Witsensteig, the city and territory of Bieberach, with their dependencies, the cities of Waldsee and Schettingen, the comitial lands of Karpfenburg, Laucheim, and Alschausen, except the lordship of Hohenfeld and the abbey of Weiblingen.

XIX. The grand duke of Baden shall receive the lordship of Bondorff, the cities of Vreulingen, Villingen, and Tuttlingen, the parts of their territories which are given to him in article XIV, and along with these the comitials of Bolten and Freyburg.

XX. The grand duke of Berg shall receive the city and territory of Deutz, the city and manor of of Koningswinter, and the manor of Wistick, as ceded by the duke of Nassau.

XXI. The grand duke of Darmstadt shall unite to his states the burgraviat of Friedberg, taking to himself the sovereignty only during the life-time of the present possessor, and the whole at his death.

XXII. The prince primate shall take possession of the city of Frankfort on the Maine, and its territory, as his sovereign property.

XXIII. The prince of Hohenzollern Siegmaringen shall receive, as his sovereign property, the lordships of Aschberg and Hohenfels depending on the comitial of Alschausen, the convents of Klosterwald and Haltzthal, and the sovereignty over the imperial equestrian estates that lie in his dominions, and in the territory to the north of the Danube, wherever his sovereignty extends, namely, the lordships of Gamardingen and Hottingen.

XXIV. The members of the confederation shall exercise all the rights of sovereignty henceforward as follow:

His majesty the king of Bavaria over the principality of Schwartzenberg, the county of Castell, the lordships of Speinfeld and Wissenheid, the dependencies of the principality of Hohenlohe, which are included in the margraviate of Anspach, and territory of Rothenburg, namely, the great manors of Schillingsfust and Kirchberg, the county of Sternstein, the principality of Oettingen, the possessions of the prince of La Tour north of the principality of Neuburg, the county of Edelstetten, the possessions of the prince and of the count

of Fugger, the burgraviat of Winterrieden; lastly, the lordships of Buxheim and Tannhausen, and over the entire of the highway from Memmingen to Lindau.

His majesty the king of Wirtemberg over the possessions of the prince and count of Trouchess Waldburgh, the counties of Baindt, Egloff Guttenzell, Hechbach, Ysuy, Koenigsek, Aulendorff, Ochsenhausdn, Roth, Shussenried, and Wiessenau, the lordship of Miettengen and Lunningen, New Ravensburg, Thanheim, Warthausen, and Weingarten, with the exception of the lordship of Haguenau; the possessions of the prince of Thurn, except those not mentioned above; the lordship of Strassberg and manor of Ostraiz, the lordships of Gundelfingen and Neussen, the parts of the county of Limburg Gaildorf, which his majesty does not possess, all the unalienated possessions of the princes of Hohenlohe, and over a part of the manor formerly belonging to Mentz, Krautheim, on the left bank of the Jaxt.

The grand duke of Baden over the principality of Feurstenberg (with the exception of the lordships of Gundelfingen and Neussen); also over Trochtelfingen, Jungenau, and the part of the manor of Moeskirch, which lies on the left bank of the Danube, over the lordship of Hagenau, county of Thuengen, Landgraviat Klettgau, manors Neidenau and Billigheim, principality of Leiningen, the possessions of Lowenstein Wertheim, upon the left bank of the Maine, except the county of Lowenstein, and the lordships of Haibach, Bronnberg, and Habitzheim; and, lastly, over the possessions of the princes of Salm-Reiferscheid-Krautheim, to the north of the Jaxt.

The grand duke of Berg over the lordships of Limburg-Styrum, Brugg, Hardenberg, Gimhorn, and Neustadt, Wildenberg; the counties of Hontburg, Bentheim, Steinfurt, and Horstmarn, the possessions of the duke of Looz, the counties of Siegen, Dillenburg (the manors of Werheim and Burgach excepted), over Stadamar, the lordships Westerburg, Schadeck, and Beilstein, and the properly so called part of Runkel, on the right bank of the Lahn. In order to establish a communication between Cleves and the abovenamed possessions, the grand duke shall have a free passage throughout the states of the prince of Salm.

His highness the grand duke of Darmstadt over the lordships of Breuberg, Haibach, the manor of Habizheim, county of Erbach, lordship of Illenstadt, a part of the county of Konigsheim, which is possessed by the prince of Stollberg Gedern; over the possessions of the baron of Riedesel, that are included in, or lie contiguous to, his states, namely, the jurisdictions of Lauserbach, Stockhausen, Mort, and Truenstern, the possessions of the princes and counts of Solms, in Wetterau, exclusive of the manors of Hohen-Solms, Braussels, and Greifenstein; lastly, the counties Wittgenstein and Berleburg, and the manor of Hessen-Homburg, which is in possession of the line of that name.

His most serene eminence the prince primate over the possessions of the princes and counts of Lowenstein Wertheim, on the right bank of the Maine, and over the county of Rheineck.

Nassau Usingen, and Nassau Wellburg, over the manors of Diersdorf, Altenwied, Neursburgh, and the part of the county of Bassenburgh which belongs to the prince of Wied-Runkel, over the counties of Neuwied and Holzapfel, the lordship of Schomberg, the county of Diez and its dependencies, over that part of the village of Metzfelden, which appertains to the prince of Nassau-Pulda, the manors of Werheim and Balbuch, that part of the lordship of Runkel situate on the left bank of the Lahn, over the knightdoms of Kransberg, and lastly over the manors of Solms Braunsels, Hohen Solms, and Greifenstein.

The prince of Hohenzollern-Siegmaringen over Trochtelfingen, Jungenan, Strasbergh, manor Ostrach, and the part of the lordship of Moeskirch which lies on the left bank of the Danube.

Salm Kyrburg over the lordship of Gehmen.

Isenburg-Burstein, over the possessions of the count of Isenburg Budingen, Wechtersbach, and Mehrholz, without any pretensions on the part of the branch in the present possession being urged against him.

Ahrenberg over the county of Dulmen.

XXV. The members of the confederation shall take the sovereignty of the imperial knightdoms included within their boundaries. Such of these lands as lie between the states of two of the confederates shall be, with respect to the sovereignty, partitioned as exactly as possible between them, that no misunderstanding with respect to the sovereignty may arise.

XXVI. The rights of sovereignty consist in exercising the legislation, superior jurisdiction, administration of justice, military conscription, or recruiting, and levying taxes.

XXVII. The present reigning princes or counts shall enjoy as patrimonial or private property all the domains they at present occupy, as well as all the rights of manor and entail that do not essentially appertain to the sovereignty, namely, the right of superior and inferior administration of justice in common and criminal cases, tenths, patronage, and other rights, with the revenues therefrom accruing. Their domains and chattels, as far as relates to the taxes, shall be annexed to the prince of that house under whose sovereignty they come, or, if no prince of the house be in possession of immoveable property, in that case they shall be put upon an equality with the domains of princes of the most privileged class. Those domains cannot be sold or given to any prince out of the confederation, without being first offered to the prince under whose sovereignty they are placed.

XXVIII. In penal cases, the now reigning princes and counts, and their heirs, shall preserve their present privileges of trial. They shall be tried by their peers. Their fortune shall not, in any event, be confiscated; but the revenues may, during the life-time of the criminal, be sequestrated.

XXIX. The confederate states shall contribute to the payment of the debts of their circle as well for their old as their new possessions. The debts of the circle of Suabia shall be put to the account of the kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the grand duke of Baden, the princes of Hohenzollern, Hechingen, and Siegmaringen, the prince of

Lichtenstein, and prince of Leyen, in proportion to their respective possessions in Suabia.

XXX. The proper debts of a prince or count who falls under the sovereignty of another state, shall be defrayed by the said state conjointly with the now reigning prince, in the proportion of the revenues which that state shall require, and of the part which by the present treaty is allotted to attach to the attributes of the present sovereigns.

XXXI. The present reigning princes or counts may determine the place of their residence where they will. Where they reside in the dominions of a member or ally of the confederation, or in any of the possessions which they hold out of the territory of the confederation, they may draw their rents or capitals without paying any tax whatever on them.

XXXII. Those persons who hold places in the administration of the countries which hereby come under the sovereignty of the confederates, and who shall not be retained by the new sovereign, shall receive a pension according to the situation they have held.

XXXIII. The members of military or religious orders who shall lose their incomes, or whose common property shall be secularized, shall receive during life a yearly stipend proportioned to their former income, their dignity, and their age, and which shall be secured upon the goods of the revenues of which they were in the enjoyment.

XXXIV. The confederates renounce reciprocally, for themselves and their posterity, all claims which they might have upon the possessions of other members of the confederation, the eventual right of succession alone excepted, and this only in the event of the family having died out, which now is in possession of the territories, and objects to which such a right might be advanced.

XXXV. Between the emperor of the French and the confederated states, federatively and individually, there shall be an alliance, by virtue of which every continental war, in which one or either parties shall be engaged, shall be common to all.

XXXVI. In the event of any foreign or neighbouring power making preparations for war, the contracting parties, in order to prevent surprise, shall, upon the requisition of the minister of one of them at the assembly of the league in Frankfort, arm also. And as the contingent of the allies is subdivided into four parts, the assembly shall decide how many of those shall be called into activity. The armament, however, shall only take place upon the summons of the emperor to each of the contracting parties.

XXXVII. His majesty the king of Bavaria binds himself to fortify Augsburg and Lindau; in the first of these places to form and maintain artillery establishments, and in the second to keep a quantity of muskets and ammunition sufficient for a reserve, as well as a baking establishment at Augsburg, sufficient to supply the armies without delay in the event of war.

XXXVIII. The contingent of each is determined as follows:

France	200,000 men
Bavaria	30,000
Wirtemberg	12,000
Baden	8,000
Berg	5,000

Darmstadt . . . 4,000 men
Nassau, Hohenzollern,
and others 4,000

XXXIX. The contracting parties will admit of the accession of other German princes and states, in all cases where their union with the confederation may be found consistent with the general interest.

XL. The ratification of the present treaty shall be exchanged between the contracting parties, on the 25th July, at Munich.

Done at Paris, July 12, 1806.

OFFICIAL NOTICE BY THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT TO THE GERMAN DIET OF THE FORMATION OF A NEW CONFEDERACY.

Ratisbon, Aug. 1.

This day Bacher, charge d'affaires of France, remitted to the diet the following note:

The undersigned charge d'affaires of his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy, at the general diet of the German empire, has received orders from his majesty to make the following declarations:

Their majesties the kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the sovereign princes of Ratisbon, of Baden, of Hesse Darmstadt, of Nassau, and the other principal princes of the south and west of Germany have taken the resolution to form among themselves a confederation, which places them in safety from all the uncertainties of the future, and they have ceased to be states of the empire.

The situation in which the treaty of Presburg placed directly the courts allied to France, and indirectly the princes whom they surround, and who are their neighbours, being incompatible with the condition of a state of the empire, it became necessary for those courts and princes to new-model the system of their relations, and to cause to disappear an inconsistency which would have been a permanent source of agitation, inquietude, and danger.

On her side, France, so essentially interested in maintaining the peace of the south of Germany, and who could not doubt, that the moment when she should have caused her troops to repass the Rhine, discord, an inevitable consequence of relations contradictory or uncertain, ill designed, and ill understood, would have exposed a new danger to the repose of nations, and again, perhaps, lighted up a war on the continent; bound besides to promote the welfare of her allies, and to enable them to enjoy all the advantages which the treaty of Presburg secured to them, and which she had guaranteed; France could only see in the confederation which they had formed a natural consequence and necessary completion of that treaty.

For a long time, successive changes, which have gone on augmenting from age to age, had reduced the Germanic constitution to be only a shadow of itself. Time had changed all the relations of grandeur and of strength which originally existed among the members of the confederation, and between each of them, and the whole, of which they made a part. The diet had ceased to have a will that belonged to itself. The sentences of the supreme tribunals could not be put in execution. Every thing atttest-

ed an enfeeblement so great, that the federation tie no longer presented a guarantee, and among the powerful was only a cause of dissention and discord. The events of the three coalitions carried this enfeeblement to its utmost length. One electorate has been suppressed by the union of Hanover with Prussia; a northern power has incorporated with his other states one of the provinces of the empire; the treaty of Presburg has assigned to the kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, and the elector of Baden, the plenitude of sovereignty; a prerogative which the other electors would claim, and be entitled to claim, but which could accord neither with the spirit nor the letter of the constitution of the empire.

His majesty the emperor and king is therefore obliged to declare, that he acknowledges no longer the existence of the German constitution; at the same time, nevertheless, recognizing the entire and absolute sovereignty of every one of the princes of whose states Germany at this day consists, and preserving with them the same relations as with the other independent powers of Europe.

His majesty the emperor and king has accepted the title of protector of the confederation of the Rhine. He has done so only from pacific views, and that his mediation, constantly interposed between the weak and the strong, may prevent every kind of dissention and disorder.

Having thus done enough for the dearest interest of his people and of his neighbours; having provided as much as lay in his power for the future tranquillity of Europe, and in particular for the tranquillity of Germany, which has constantly been the theatre of war; in putting a period to the contradiction which placed the nations and the princes under the apparent protection of a system really contrary to their political interests and their treaties, his majesty the emperor and king hopes that the nations of Europe will at length lend a deaf ear to the insinuations of those who wish to cherish eternal war upon the continent; that the French armies which have passed the Rhine, shall have passed it for the last time; and that the people of Germany will see no longer, in the history of the past, any thing but the horrible picture of disorders of every kind, of devastations, and of massacres, which war always brings in its train.

His majesty has declared, that he would never extend the boundaries of France beyond the Rhine: he has been faithful to his promise. At present, his only desire is to be able to employ the means which Providence has entrusted to him, for the purpose of asserting the liberty of the seas, of restoring to commerce its liberty, and securing the repose and happiness of the world*.

BACHER.

Ratisbon, Aug. 1, 1806.

* The kings of Bavaria and of Wirtemberg, the electors arch-chancellor and of Baden, the landgrave of Hesse, the prince of Hohenzollern, the prince of Salm Kyrburg, and the prince of Ysembourg, at the same time sent a declaration to the diet, in which they renouece the Germanic union, and announce their confederation, under the guarantee of the emperor of the French.

RESIGNATION OF THE OFFICE OF EMPEROR OF GERMANY, BY FRANCIS, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

We, Francis Second, &c.

Since the peace of Presburg, all our attention and all our care have been employed to fulfil with scrupulous fidelity all the engagements contracted by that treaty, to preserve to our subjects the happiness of peace, to consolidate every where the amicable relations happily re-established, waiting to discover whether the changes caused by the peace would permit us to perform our important duties, as chief of the Germanic empire, comformable to the capitulation of election.

The consequences, however, which ensued from some articles of the treaty of Presburg, immediately after its publication, and which still exist, and those events generally known, which have since taken place in the Germanic empire, have convinced us that it will be impossible, under these circumstances, to continue the obligations contracted by the capitulation of election, and even, if, in reflecting on these political relations, it were possible to imagine a change of affairs, the convention of the 12th of July, signed at Paris, and ratified by the contracting parties, relative to an entire separation of several considerable states of the empire, and their peculiar consideration, has entirely destroyed every such hope.

Being thus convinced of the impossibility of being any longer enabled to fulfil the duties of our imperial functions, we owe it to our principles and to our duty to renounce a crown which was only valuable, in our eyes, whilst we were able to enjoy the confidence of the electors, princes, and other states of the Germanic empire, and to perform the duties which were imposed upon us. We declare, therefore, by these presents, that we, considering as dissolved the ties which have hitherto attached us to the states of the Germanic empire; that we, considering as extinguished, by the confederation of the states of the Rhine, the charge in chief of the empire; and that we, considering ourselves thus acquitted of all our duties towards the Germanic empire, do resign the imperial crown, and the imperial government. We absolve, at the same time, the electors, princes, and states, and all that belong to the empire, particularly the members of the supreme tribunal, and other magistrates of the empire, from those duties by which they were united to us as the legal chief of the empire, according to the constitution.

We also absolve all our German provinces and states of the empire from their reciprocal duties towards the Germanic empire, and we desire, in incorporating them with our Austrian states as emperor of Austria, and in preserving them in those amicable relations subsisting with the neighbouring powers and states, that they should attain that height of prosperity and happiness which is the end of all our desires, and the object of our dearest wishes.

Done at our residence, under our imperial seal, Vienna, the 6th Aug., 1806.

FRANCIS.

Supplementary Address.

Vienna, Aug. 8.

We, Francis Second, &c.

In abdicating the imperial government of the empire, we, considering it as the last effort of our care and as an absolute duty, do express thus publicly a desire equally reasonable and just, that the persons who have hitherto been employed in the administration of justice, and in diplomatic and other affairs, for the good of the whole empire, and for the service of the chief of the empire, should be suitably provided for.

The care which all the states of the empire took of those persons who lost their places by the affair of the indemnity in 1803, induces us to hope that the same sentiments of justice will be extended to those individuals who have hitherto been employed in the general service, who have been chosen in all parts of the Germanic empire, and many of whom have quitted other profitable places, looking forward to an honourable subsistence for life, and which should not be wanting to them on account of their fidelity, and the integrity and capacity with which they have executed their functions.

We have, therefore, taken the resolution of preserving to those of our imperial servants who have hitherto drawn their salaries from our chamber, the same appointments, reserving to ourselves to place them in employments in the service of our hereditary states, and we hope, with so much the more confidence, that the electors, princes, and states will provide for the imperial chamber of justice of the empire, and the chancellerie of the chamber of justice, by charging themselves voluntarily with this expence, as it will be trifling in amount, and will diminish every year.

As to the chancellerie of the aulic council of the empire, the funds destined for its support will be employed to provide for the wants of those individuals who have hitherto drawn from thence their salaries; this will serve them until other measures may be taken.

Done in our capital and residence of Vienna, under our imperial seal, the 6th of Aug., 1806.

FRANCIS.

RUSSIAN OFFICIAL NOTE.

Petersburg, August 20, 1806.

The counsellor of state, Pierre d'Oubril, departing early in the month of May for Paris, to succour the Russian prisoners, received at the same time instructions for the occasion which might present itself to effect a reconciliation between France and Prussia. He has returned hither with extraordinary diligence, bearing a treaty of peace which he had concluded and signed on the 20th July with general Clarke, plenipotentiary of the French government.

As much as that event would have been agreeable to his imperial majesty, if this treaty had been suitable to his majesty's dignity, to his engagements with his allies, to the safety of his subjects, and to the general repose of Europe; so much the more has it been disagreeable to him to see

that in no respect have his just and benevolent intentions been answered.

This treaty is of the following tenor:

Art. 1. From the date hereof there shall be perpetual peace and good friendship between his majesty the emperor of Russia, and his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, their heirs and successors, estates, and subjects.

2. In execution of the first article, hostilities both by land and sea shall immediately cease between the two nations. The necessary orders to this effect shall in consequence be forwarded in twenty-four hours from the signing of this treaty. All ships of war and other vessels belonging to either power, or to their subjects, which may be taken in any part of the world by the subjects of the other, shall be restored to the right owners.

3. The Russian troops shall give up to the French the country known by the name of the mouths of the Cattaro, which, as being a dependence on Dalmatia, appertains to his majesty the emperor of the French, in his quality of king of Italy, agreeably to the 4th article of the treaty of Presburg. There shall be furnished to the Russian troops every possible facility for their departure from both the mouths of Cattaro and the Ragusan territory, the country of the Montenegrins, and from Dalmatia, wherever the circumstances of the war may have placed them. Immediately after the treaty shall be made known, the military and naval commandants of both nations shall make in concert the necessary dispositions both for the retreat of the troops and for the surrender of the territory.

4. His majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, desirous of giving to his majesty the emperor of Russia a proof of his conciliatory disposition, consents, 1. That the republic of Ragusa shall be restored to its former independence, on condition that it shall be as heretofore under the protection of the Ottoman porte. 2. That no act of hostility shall take place, from the day of the date of the present treaty, against the Montenegrins whilst they remain peaceable as subjects of the Ottoman porte. They shall be obliged immediately to return to their own fire-sides; and the emperor Napoleon promises not to disquiet them, and that no enquiry shall be made respecting the part they have taken in the hostilities against Ragusa, her dependencies, and the adjacent country.

5. The independence of the republic of the Seven Isles is acknowledged by the two powers. The Russian troops who may be at present in the Mediterranean shall form a junction at the Ionian Isles. His majesty the emperor of Russia, to give a proof of his pacific intentions, shall not maintain more than 4000 men of his troops, which, however, shall depart from thence as soon as his imperial majesty shall deem it expedient.

6. It is promised, on both sides, that nothing shall be done to injure the independence of the Ottoman porte; and the two high contracting powers reciprocally engage to maintain that power in the integrity of its possessions.

7. Immediately after, in conformity to the present convention of peace, the order for the evacuation

of the mouths of the Cattaro by the Russian troops shall have been given, the French troops shall retire from Germany. His majesty the emperor Napoleon declares, that in less than three months after the signing of the present treaty the French troops shall have all re-entered France.

8. The two courts promise to interpose their good offices for procuring peace between Prussia and Sweden.

9. The two high contracting parties, desirous of accelerating, as far as depends upon them, the return of maritime peace, his majesty the emperor of the French for this purpose accepts the good offices of his Russian majesty.

10. The commercial relations between the subjects of the two powers shall be established on the same footing on which they stood before the commencement of hostilities.

11. Immediately after the exchange of the ratifications, the prisoners of both nations shall be restored, without exception, to the respective agents of their nation.

12. The diplomatic relations and the etiquette between the two courts, shall be the same as before the war.

13. The ratifications of the present convention shall be exchanged at Petersburg, within twenty-five days, between two plenipotentiaries charged by their respective courts with full powers for that purpose.

Concluded and signed at Paris the 8th (20th) July, 1806.

PIERRE OUBRIL, and CLARKE.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CONDUCT OF D'OUBRIL, ON THE TREATY WHICH HE SIGNED ON THE 20TH OF JULY, AND THE REFUSAL OF THE EMPEROR OF RUSSIA TO RATIFY IT.

It was expected that Bonaparte would become furious as soon as the refusal of the emperor of Russia to ratify the treaty concluded by M. d'Oubril was known.

The organs of his passions, those slaves of journalists, ought to have prepared their calumnies and their insults at the moment that the signature of this treaty had been obtained from the weakness or the perfidy of this subaltern negociator; for Bonaparte must have been sure that M d'Oubril was exceeding his powers, and betraying the confidence of his august master. He must have foreseen, and, in fact, he has since experienced, that the treaty could not be ratified. It was at this moment that those wretched persons, condemned to defile their pen by undertaking his defence, and their persons by receiving his protection, ought to have drawn up those abusive and absurd calumnies with which he chuses to amuse his grooms of the chamber, and fatigue his slaves.

But it is now requisite for us to establish the facts, and to dare him and his accomplices to deny a single assertion, or to attack one of our reasons: for if he should venture to contradict our facts, we shall reply by supporting them with fresh evidence: if he discuss our arguments, we will punish him by unveiling the absurdity of his sophisms, and displaying the turpitude of his calumnies.

Let us, in the first place, meet an objection which naturally presents itself to the mind. The in-

credible conduct of M. d'Oubril, the crime of having exceeded the instructions of his master, the singular situation in which he had placed himself, of being obliged to confess himself either a traitor or a coward, and of being accused perhaps of both; these collected circumstances cause it to be asked, with a pardonable degree of astonishment, "how the Russian government could recommend such a man to the confidence of the emperor?"

We presume that we shall have answered all objections, dissipated all doubts, and annihilated the impostures of Bonaparte, if we prove—

1st. That the choice of M. d'Oubril was, in the actual circumstances, such a one as appeared the best that could be made.

2d. That M. d'Oubril had never any other powers than those granted for ages to every negotiator.

3d. That those formal powers were still subject to his instructions.

4th. That he has neither followed his instructions nor obeyed his powers.

5th. That he declared to M. Talleyrand and lord Yarmouth, and that he wrote at the same time to England and St. Petersburgh, that he had no power to sign what Bonaparte required of him.

6th. That Bonaparte had, notwithstanding those declarations, a great interest in compelling the signature of M. d'Oubril.

7th. That he did obtain this signature from the cowardice of the negociator, knowing at the same time, the absolute inefficacy of it for its apparent object, a treaty.

8th. That he absolutely made the very use of it for which it was demanded.

9th. That if he has failed in the results that he promised himself from it, it was not his fault, but the happy effect of the firmness of England.

These are the facts that we are to establish. Let Bonaparte answer us, and he shall be satisfied with the degree of evidence that we promise to bring to this discussion.

It was in contemplation, at the time of sending off M. d'Oubril to Paris, to charge a sub-minister with this mission, that he might hear, report, and conclude nothing; that the tenor of the instructions, which limited his powers, might be more strict and severe, and that to such a dubious negotiation a character more imposing than it deserved might not be given. It would, indeed, have been dangerous for it to acquire an importance in the public opinion from the rank of the person charged with it, as it might have weakened on the continent that energy and vigilance which are so necessary. It was essential, however, that the person, charged with this negotiation, should be well acquainted with the actual state of political affairs; that he should have a clue to all the negotiations, and understand the interests of all the allies. M. d'Oubril, then, having been principally employed in the chancery of the prince Czartorinski, must necessarily unite all this knowledge, since it formed the very elements of his employment. Talents were necessary, and it was known he possessed them. Principles were necessary, and he was thought to be influenced by the best. It was

proper that the negotiator should have the confidence of the allies, and not be odious to the French. M. d'Oubril united in his person those qualities which were necessary for the negotiator. What was expected from him he appeared to promise by his past conduct, and that is the only means by which men have to form their judgment of the future. The prince Czartorinski, then, in presenting M. d'Oubril to the confidence of his master, did what was his duty, and the confidence with which he honoured him was founded on, and influenced by circumstances. Nevertheless it remained for the prince minister, after having made this choice, to guard against the weakness or disloyalty of the negotiator, as if he had suspected him, and to conciliate these wise and political precautions (whatever confidence a negotiator may deserve) with the will of the emperor, which ought to be the supreme law.

On the one hand, the emperor of Russia must desire peace, because he is just, and the father of his people: peace being the only object of a wise government, because kings only reign for the purpose of establishing and maintaining peace; and because it is the stability of peace alone which they look for in the necessity and continuation of war.

But the emperor is too well known to Europe and the world, for any honest man, even in France, to believe that he would give the name of peace to a treaty incompatible with his dignity; for his dignity is the safety of the state, and the undeniable pledge of the confidence of nations.

But there can be no association of his dignity with any treaty of peace that does not fulfil the engagements which he had contracted with his allies; which does not establish in Europe such a political situation as would secure the balance of power, so necessary to its existence; because the existence of Europe is connected with the security of his dominions. Besides, if every war has for its object the security of the state that is forced to undertake it, the sovereign can only terminate it when he has acquired that security for which he went to war. Such were the intentions of the emperor.

The minister conformed himself to them, by giving to M. d'Oubril powers, such as for many ages have been given to every negotiator; but, at the same time, regulating the use he was to make of those powers, by instructions that were to fix the extent of them, and to circumscribe them within the necessary limits. The instructions of M. d'Oubril were, to listen to propositions, to prepare for those the emperor of Russia might chuse to make, and to await the orders of his court.

In addition to these, his first instructions and powers were still farther restrained, after M. d'Oubril had arrived in Paris.

During the residence of M. d'Oubril at Vienna, the prince of Czartorinski, aware of the projects of Bonaparte against Germany, had the prudence to send to Vienna new orders, to restrain still more strictly the powers he had received, and to regulate the use of them.

In these new instructions, he was enjoined to confine himself in the negotiation to the preparing a treaty on the basis which had been approved by the emperor, his master; but was expressly for-

bidden to conclude any thing without fresh orders. These new instructions placed M. d'Oubril in that subordinate rank which the emperor wished him to possess through the whole of this negotiation. Whatever, therefore, might have been his first instructions, those given at Vienna were the foundation of his powers, and the rule for his conduct. These were the circumstances under which he arrived at Paris.

One might stop here, now that this infamous treaty is known, and say, here is what M. d'Oubril ought to have done; this is what he has done: let the whole world judge of him.

One might ask, what prince has ever ratified such a treaty? and if it depends on the treason or cowardice of a minister to destroy the dignity of his master and the security of his dominions, and to make him violate his engagements? Has it ever been said that a negotiator can dispose of the throne of his king; for he who can dispose of the honour of kings, may also dispose of their states, and even of their existence.

But, although what we have said will doubtless be sufficient fully to expose the absurd declamations of Bonaparte, as transcribed by his journalists, we have, however, not yet completed the circle which we have here traced for ourselves.

We assert, that Bonaparte, in snatching from the weakness of M. d'Oubril this degrading signature, knew the invalidity of the measure which disgraced him; and that he had a different object in extorting from him the signing of a treaty which he knew would not be ratified.

He knew that it could not be ratified, because he knew that M. d'Oubril was sensible he must, at the sight of what he was commanded to do in Paris, see that he was acting contrary to his instructions. He declared it to the French negotiators; he declared it to lord Yarmouth; he wrote this account to England, and he asserted it at St. Petersburg. He has declared that, "in thus acting contrary to his instructions, he had been surrounded, circumvented, wearied, and provoked; that many threats were uttered; that a harsh and insulting tone was used towards him; that the negotiators were assembled at two o'clock in the morning; that the conference had lasted for sixteen hours; that he was alone against a number, who relieved one another; that he had become feverish; that his head was bewildered; and that it was under these circumstances he signed." Certainly it might be asked how it was possible that a minister of Alexander *should be intimidated by any power whatever?* One naturally asks, what menace could frighten a subject of Alexander I? M. d'Oubril should answer those questions.

He alone has proved the possibility of a fact incredible in itself. He has realized what no Russian before him conceived possible. It is his business to explain the causes of this phenomenon. It is sufficient for us, that the first is confirmed by his own statement at Paris, to lord Yarmouth, in his letters to England, and his avowals at St. Petersburgh.

Can it then be believed that Bonaparte relied on the ratification of such a treaty, extorted from the weakness of the negotiator by such strange means.

Let people read this treaty, and it will be immediately seen whether Bonaparte could expect it ratified. But it will be said then, what motive could have made him feel so interested to obtain it?

His motive was to terrify England by the desertion of such an ally; to inspire England with suspicions of Russia; to increase his acts of violence against Germany, and to extinguish all resistance, upon the appearance of the emperor of Russia having absolutely abandoned Germany, Italy, and all his allies; to snatch from England a shameful treaty; to multiply, without ceasing, her hostilities on the continent, and to accuse Russia of rekindling the war. This was his project; this was the reason he wished first to persuade Paris, and then Europe, that he was sure of the treaty being ratified. He himself ratified it six hours after he had extorted the signature from M. d'Oubril. He caused it to be published three hours after he ratified it. He went further: he wished to appear to proceed immediately to its execution, as if he had received the ratification of the emperor of Russia. For this motive alone he published the order to the French marine to treat the Russian ships as friends; an order which was illusory, and of no value in the present state of the French navy; but, on the other hand, counted so little on the ratification of the treaty, that in publishing this order, to convince the public that it could not be refused, he suspended the exchange of prisoners, because that such a step had some real value.

England is the power which made him feel that his plan had failed. He could neither terrify her, nor impose on her, and in her refusal to accept a dishonourable peace, we please ourselves with the thought that she has rendered to the emperor Alexander the homage due to his virtues, and that she never doubted his fidelity.

We know that all Russia will be astonished at the confession of M. d'Oubril, that he has been menaced, and that he yielded to menace. The possibility of such a phenomenon will not be believed, but one must believe real facts, although their existence might have appeared incredible.

There are, however, other facts, which M. d'Oubril has not disclosed. He has not told us, that Bonaparte, according to his usual practice, held out temptations to him as well as threats, and had pointed out to him the situation of the Russian ambassador at Paris as a reward for his docility, and a consequence of the treaty; that he had made him hope that France herself would ask this situation for him from Russia, as the best means of consolidating peace, and of obtaining from it all that could be desired.

To this temptation, which our information states was employed, we must add the following reflections:

M. d'Oubril, on quitting the prince Czartorinski, could not be ignorant, and was not ignorant, that the prince was determined to obtain from the justice of the emperor leave to resign his situation; he knew all the motives of that prince retiring from office. These motives were, that the political system followed by the prince up to that timedid not appear to have obtained the approbation which he wished, and that it was proposed to adopt measures of less energy than such as he conceived to be absolutely necessary. This M.

d'Oubril well knew. He thought then, that a new ministry would adopt different views, and that he might hazard a step which would be favourably received by them, as it would be possible to throw whatever odium attended such a treaty on that minister who had been his benefactor, and who had honoured him with his confidence.

These are the motives which we are allowed to believe were as powerful as the menaces of Bonaparte. In this case what a miserable calculation has M. d'Oubril made!

Ministers may be changed in Russia, but the emperor is not changed; and the choice that he made of a successor to prince Czartorinski did not announce to M. d'Oubril, that any motive could secure the approbation of M. de Budberg to a treaty which would pollute the honour of his master and of his country.

Does not he know the force of public opinion in Russia? A stranger may be allowed to be ignorant of this circumstance; but can a Russian deceive himself in this point? A Russian knows that there does exist such a thing as public opinion in Russia; he knows that the emperor, who has every thing to expect and nothing to fear from it, has endeavoured to create, direct, and support it; and that, in circumstances of such importance, the emperor, however great his power, knows how to listen to it, and avail himself of it.

Let us conclude, then, at present, that prince Czartorinski, in presenting M. d'Oubril to the confidence of the emperor, made a proper choice; that he gave him the customary powers, and that he limited the extent of them by successive orders at St. Petersburgh and Vienna.

That M. d'Oubril, after his arrival at Paris, declared, that what was demanded from him was beyond the limits of his power; that he declared so to lord Yarmouth; that he wrote the same to London, and confessed it at St. Petersburgh; that Bonaparte, well assured that a treaty signed by M. d'Oubril would be null, yet wished to extort that signature; and that M. d'Oubril himself confesses that it was extorted by menaces, and by overwhelming him with labour and fatigue.

That the use which Bonaparte wished to make of this treaty, which he knew could not be ratified, was to obtain a peace that should be dishonourable to England, and to enslave Germany. Let us then agree that, thanks to Heaven, the shame of this infamous treaty remains exclusively his own, without having derived from it any of the advantages which he expected.

LETTER FROM HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR AND KING, TO HIS EMINENT HIGHNESS THE PRINCE PRIMATE.

MY BROTHER,

The form of our communications in our quality of protector with the sovereigns assembled in congress at Frankfort not being yet determined, we have considered that nothing could be more suitable than to address the present letter to your eminent highness, in order that it may be communicated to the two colleges. In truth, what organ can we more naturally chuse than that of a prince to whose wisdom has been confided the task of preparing the first fundamental statute. We should have waited until that sta-

tute had been decreed by the congress, and had been communicated to us, if it did not contain dispositions which personally regard us. That alone has induced us to take to ourselves the initiative, in order to submit our sentiments and our reflections to the wisdom of the confederated princes.

When we accepted the title of protector of the confederation of the Rhine, we had nothing in view but to establish in right what had existed in fact many ages. In accepting it, we contracted the double obligation of guaranteeing the territories of the confederation against foreign troops, and the territory of each confederate against the enterprizes of others. These all-preserving obligations are pleasing to our heart; they are conformable to those sentiments of benevolence and friendship of which we have, without ceasing, given proofs to the members of the confederation. But these our duties towards them end. We do not wish to be understood as arrogating to ourselves that portion of sovereignty which was exercised by the emperor of Germany as sovereign. As the government of the people whom Providence has confided to us occupies all our time, we could not see an increase of our obligations without alarm. As we do not wish to be ascribed to us the good which sovereigns may effect in their states, neither do we wish to be imputed to us the evils which the vicissitudes of human affairs may introduce. The internal affairs of each state we do not regard. The princes of the confederation of the Rhine are sovereigns, without any sovereign over them. We have recognized them as such. The discussions which they may have with their subjects cannot, therefore, be brought before a foreign tribunal. The diet is the tribunal whose office it is to maintain peace between the different sovereigns who compose the confederation. Having recognized all the other princes who form the Germanic body as independent sovereigns, we cannot recognize any one as their sovereign. We have no relations of sovereignty with the confederation of the Rhine, but merely those of simple protection. More powerful than the confederate princes, we wish to use the superiority of our power, not to restrain their rights of sovereignty, but to guarantee their rights in their plenitude.

We pray God, my brother, that he may have you in his holy and worthy keeping.

Given at our imperial palace of St. Cloud, the 11th of September, 1806.

NAPOLEON.

CIRCULAR NOTE ADDRESSED TO THEIR MAJESTIES, IMPERIAL AND ROYAL HIGHNESSES, DUKES AND MOST SERENE PRINCES, ASSOCIATED IN THE CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE, ON THE PART OF THE PRINCE PRIMATE OF THE CONFEDERATION.

The prince primate of the confederation has the honour to inform their majesties, imperial and serene highnesses, &c., that his minister plenipotentiary, baron d'Albini, repaired to Frankfort at the beginning of this month, to make preparations in his name for the opening of the diet, inasmuch as might accord with the inten-

tions of the associated kings and sovereigns. The act of confederation having designated that term for proposing a fundamental statute, the opening of the sittings will depend probably upon the arrival of the plenipotentiaries. Ardently desiring to deserve the confidence of the associated kings and princes, the prince primate regards it as the first duty of his office not to propose any thing which might not be generally acknowledged as of essential advantage to the confederation, as well as consistent with the perfect independence of the confederated sovereigns.

If the formation of a fundamental statute cannot be the work of a day, and that an object of such importance requires the most mature reflection, it is, notwithstanding, equally true, that it is desirable that the confederation should from its commencement be established upon an immoveable basis. Its object is to obtain tranquillity and security, the true happiness of nations, and to enable sovereigns to occupy themselves without interruption in the prosperity of their states, in increasing the happiness of the towns and country, by the enlightened attention of a prudent and parental government, and by the encouragement of useful arts and sciences, the true sources of the splendour of august dynasties, and sovereign houses. The south of Germany, after ages of misfortunes, troubles, and wars, cannot but ardently wish that its internal happiness should be established upon an imperishable basis. The prince primate submits to the wisdom of the confederated kings and princes the decision of the question, whether the fundamental maxim of the inviolability of the territory of the confederation be not the first and most important of all the bases of the public prosperity? Whether it be agreeable to the high wisdom of the confederated kings and princes never to allow a passage to foreign troops, though even disarmed, without the consent of the entire confederation? And, finally, if it be not also conformable to the dignity of independent sovereigns, that the representatives at the diet of Frankfort, engaged in assuring domestic tranquillity, should neither send ministers to, nor receive them from foreign courts; a right which is naturally reserved to each of the august kings and sovereigns, and not to a meeting of their plenipotentiaries.

If the diet of Frankfort should hereafter apply to his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy, as protector, to obtain his guarantee of such an inviolability of the territory of the confederation, we may be allowed to entertain a hope that this favour, one of the first importance, will not be refused on the part of that great man, who has known how to respect the inviolability of one of the most important countries in the world, notwithstanding the obstacles which appeared to oppose it.

The prince primate submits these observations to the kings, princes, &c., associated in the confederation of the Rhine, and will always feel happy if his zeal and disinterestedness can deserve their confidence and approbation.

CHARLES.

Aschaffenburgh, September 18*th*, 1806.

LETTER FROM HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH AND

KING OF ITALY, TO HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF BAVARIA.

SIR, MY BROTHER,

It is more than a month since Prussia has armed, and it is known to all the world that she arms against France, and against the confederation of the Rhine. We have sought for the motives of these armaments, without being able to discover them. The letters written to us by his Prussian majesty are amicable, his minister for foreign affairs has notified to our envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, that he recognizes the confederation of the Rhine, and that he has no objection to the arrangements made in the south of Germany.

Are the armaments of Prussia the result of a coalition with Russia, or merely of the intrigues of the different parties which exist at Berlin, and the irresolution of the cabinet? Have they for their object to force Hesse, Saxony, and the hanseatic towns to contract obligations which the two latter powers do not appear to wish to form? Does Prussia wish to compel us ourself to depart from the declaration which we have made, that the hanseatic towns shall not enter into any particular confederation? a declaration founded upon the commercial interests of France and of the south of Germany, and upon what has been made known to us by England, that any change in the present situation of the hanseatic towns will be a great obstacle to a general peace. We have also declared, that the princes of the German empire, who were not comprised in the confederation of the Rhine, ought to be at liberty to consult only their own interests and convenience, that they ought to be regarded as perfectly free, that we would do nothing to draw them into the confederation of the Rhine, but that we would not suffer them to be forced to do any act which would be contrary to their inclination, their policy, or the interests of their people. Ought this just declaration to have so wounded the cabinet of Berlin, that we should be obliged to retract it? Amongst all these motives, which is the true one we cannot divine, and the future only can reveal the secret of a conduct as strange as it was unexpected. A month has elapsed without our taking notice of it. Our inattention has only served to embolden all those firebrands who wish to precipitate the court of Berlin into a most inconsiderate contest.

At length the armaments of Prussia have led to the case provided for by one of the articles of the treaty of the 12th of July, and we think it necessary that all the sovereigns who compose the confederation of the Rhine should arm to defend its interests, to guarantee and maintain the inviolability of its territory. Instead of 200,000 men, which France is bound to furnish, she will furnish 300,000; and we have just given orders that the troops necessary to complete that number shall be transported with speed to the Lower Rhine. The troops of your majesty being still on a war footing, we invite your majesty to issue orders that they may be put in a state to march without delay, with all their field equipage, in order that they may contribute to the defence of the common cause, the success of which we dare believe will correspond with its justice, if, at length, contrary to our

wishes, and even contrary to our hopes, Prussia should compel us to repel force by force.

We pray God, my brother, that he may have you in his holy and worthy keeping.

NAPOLEON.

Given at St. Cloud, the 21st of of September, 1806.

Conformable to the original,
The minister for foreign affairs,
C. M. TALLEYRAND.
Prince of Benevento.

A similar letter has been written to the king of Wirtemberg, and letters of a similar description have been addressed to his imperial highness the grand duke of Berg, his royal highness the grand duke of Baden, his royal highness the grand duke of Hesse Darmstadt, his eminent highness the prince primate, and to the college of princes of the confederation of the Rhine.

The sovereign prince of Wurtzburg, brother to the emperor of Austria, has certainly acceded to the confederation formed by the princes in the south of Germany. Thus we may regard the state of Wurtzburg as forming part of the confederation of the Rhine.

RUSSIAN MANIFESTO.

We, Alexander I, by the grace of God, emperor and autocrat of all Russia, &c.

To all our faithful subjects be it known:—While we, in pursuance of our incessant anxiety for the internal prosperity of our empire, have directed our constant attention to its external relations, it has uniformly been our wish to establish it upon the solid basis of the public interest, and to maintian it by alliances suited to the situation and circumstances of our country. In this view, we thought it proper, at the commencement of our reign, to remove the causes of the misunderstandings which then existed, and to unite ourselves in friendly intercourse with those powers whose wise and moderate principles were most consistent with your independence, and with the general tranquillity.

The Omnipotent favoured our wishes, in restoring a general peace throughout Europe. But it was not consistent with his inscrutable purposes to continue this state of things. The war broke out anew.

Although, from our situation, we took no immediate share in this war, yet, agreeably to alliances, and to the fixed principles of attachment to the common interest and tranquillity by which we were actuated, we never ceased to wish for the restoration of peace, and to labour, by pacific negotiations, to obtain that end.

In the midst of these negotiations the daily encroachments of the French government, its spirit of aggrandizement and its unbounded ambition, which threatened to swallow up our allies, at last compelled us to take an active part in the war. We took up arms, but never ceased to wish for peace. We therefore announced, by our ukase of September 1, 1805, that the object of our arming was to maintain the faith of our alliances, and to re-establish general peace.

The misfortunes which attended the arms of the allies disappointed our intention, but the principles on which we acted are not changed. The French government, in the beginning of the present year, shewed a disposition towards pacific approximations. We gave orders to enter into dis-

cussions upon the subject. The restoration of peace, which should combine the security of our empire with the interests of our allies, and with the general tranquillity of Europe, was laid down as the principle of the discussions.

But to our regret the conditions of the treaty concluded with France neither corresponded with the dignity of our empire nor with the interests of our allies. We therefore refused to ratify those conditions.

In order nevertheless to demonstrate the unalterable principles by which we are actuated, and which, under all events, we have kept steadily in view, we have at the same time explained the means and the principles in conformity to which we are disposed again to open negotiations with the French government.

The principles which we have proposed are on the one hand so moderate that they cannot be rejected without a menace to the general security, and on the other hand so conformable to the interests of all the powers concerned, that if they are accepted a general and lasting peace may be again restored to Europe.

Either peace or a continuance of war must necessarily be the result of this measure. We wish for peace, but if a durable peace, and one grounded upon reciprocal advantage cannot be attained, we shall account it a sacred duty which we owe to the honour of the Russian name, to the security of the country, to our faith pledged by treaties, to the general preservation of Europe, to abandon all pacific proceedings, and to make those exertions which all those considerations render indispensable

We are persuaded that the providence of the Most High, who is the protector of truth, will defend our just cause with his strong arm. We are persuaded that our faithful subjects, animated at all times with love for their country, actuated at all times with a spirit of honour and sentiments of bravery, and surrounded with great examples of patriotic zeal, will unite their exertions with ours, when called upon by the security of Russia, by the voice of fame, and by our commands, to co-operate for the general weal.

In this firm persuasion, depending upon the aid of the Almighty and the zeal of our faithful subjects, we have thought it necessary to announce to you beforehand our intentions, thereby to give you a fresh proof that in none of our undertakings we are actuated, either by the desire of extending our empire, or of acquiring fame by success in war; but that the objects of our wishes and our operations are the general security, the maintenance of our alliance, and the preservation of the dignity of our empire.

Given at St. Petersburgh, Aug. 30, and in the 6th year of our reign.

ALEXANDER BUDBERG.
Minister for foreign affairs.

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The following is the answer of the senate to this communication:

MOST GRACIOUS SOVEREIGN,

The directing senate considers it a most sacred duty to approach

the exalted throne of his imperial majesty, to express the warmest feelings of devotion and gratitude, which have been excited by his gracious communication. The senate is convinced that all loyal subjects throughout the whole extent of the Russian empire, and that all nations of the world, will be unanimous in blessing his majesty for the anxiety he has manifested for the re-establishment of peace. It is also convinced that every heart will feel indignant if the audacity and hypocrisy of the enemy of the general tranquillity shall surpass the measure of thy condescension and forbearance. Then will our enemy experience that thy moderation hath bounds, which are prescribed to it by the dignity of thine empire, and the security of thine allies, and that beyond these bounds thy patience will proceed to formidable and serious exertions.

The history of the Russian empire, most gracious sovereign, bears testimony that the nation over which thou rulest, renowned for its fidelity and bravery, has constantly sacrificed every thing to the magnanimous views of thy ancestors, whether in extending the boundaries of the empire, or the illustration of the Russian name; that the obstacles which it has had to encounter in the path of glory, instead of damping, have stimulated it to double exertion. What may not now be expected from this nation, when thou, most gracious sovereign, declarest that the security of the country, the faith pledged to thine allies, and the salvation of Europe, actuate thee in having recourse to arms.

Yes, the senate, full of respect for thy wise principles, and thine unwearied attention, is aware that a hollow insecure peace with a government which is actuated solely by a thirst of dominion, is often more dangerous than even the most bloody war; and now that it is called upon by its feelings and its zeal for the glory of thy name and empire, presumes, most gracious sovereign, solemnly to assure thee, that the people whom thou hast loaded with benefits, only wait thy nod to offer in sacrifice their property and lives on the altar of the country.

And what prince on earth can expect such zeal and such exertions from their subjects as thou canst? Thou who, from the day that thou ascendest the throne, hast not ceased to diffuse benefits upon the people subjected to thy government; thou who, in all thy regulations, openest the sources of public prosperity, and who will cause the latest posterity to enjoy the fruits of thy beneficent reign, and to bless the beloved name of Alexander.

MANIFESTO OF PRUSSIA.

Declaration.

As his majesty the king of Prussia has taken up arms for the defence of his people, he thinks it necessary to lay before them, and all Europe, the circumstances which have imposed this duty on his majesty.

The politics of France have been the scourge of humanity during the last fifteen years. Those men who, in rapid succession, have been at the head of affairs in that country, have only sought the means of their dominion in war,

and the guarantee of their existence in the wretchedness of the people, may be viewed without astonishment. But the introduction of a regular government, to which the same necessity could not be imputed, gave new life to the hopes of the friends of peace. Napoleon, invested with the supreme power, victorious, surrounded by weaker states, friendly-disposed governments, or conquered and exhausted rivals, had it in his power to perform a better part. For the greatness of France, nothing more remained for him to do; for her happiness, every thing was in his power.

It is painful to be compelled to say, that French politics still remained the same. An insatiable ambition was still the ruling passion of France. She made use of arms and of treaties with the same view. The peace of Amiens was scarcely concluded, before the signal for the first acts of violence followed. Holland and Switzerland, two independent states, were compelled to accept a constitution, which converted them into French provinces. The renewal of war was the consequence.

Peace, however, still continued upon the continent. The German empire had purchased it by incalculable sacrifices. In the midst of this peace, nevertheless, the French troops invaded the electorate of Hanover; a country which had no concern in the war between France and England, while the ports of Germany were shut against the British flag; and the better to effect her object, France took possession of Cuxhaven, and the territory of a free state, which was still more a stranger to the war than Hanover.

In the midst of this peace also, the same troops, a few months after, violated the German territory in such a manner as to wound the honour of the nation still deeper. The Germans have never avenged the death of the duke d'Enghien; but the remembrance of that event will never be extinguished among them.

The treaty of Luneville guaranteed the independence of the Italian republic. In spite of the most positive assurances, did Napoleon place the iron crown of Italy upon his own head. Genoa was incorporated with France. Lucca was very near sharing the same fate. Only a few months before had the emperor, on a solemn occasion, an occasion which imposed very important duties upon him, declared before his people and before all Europe, that he wished not to extend the limits of his territory. Besides, France was bound, by a treaty with Russia, to put the king of Sardinia in possession of indemnities in Italy. Instead of fulfilling that obligation, she made herself mistress of every object which could have been serviceable towards that indemnification.

Portugal wished to maintain her neutrality, but Portugal was compelled to purchase by gold the deceitful security of a few moments.

The porte, who had not forgotten the invasion of Syria and Egypt, was the only power remaining in Europe which had not been subjected to the arbitrary proceedings of France.

But to these acts of violence, a system of abuse and injury remained still to be added. A journal, which proclaimed itself the voice of government, was chosen

as a chronicle of the attacks incessantly made upon every crowned head.

Prussia could be no stranger to any of these general acts of oppression. Many of them were nearly connected with her substantial interests: especially as the wisdom of that system which considers the states of Europe as members of the same family, calls upon each of them for the defence of all; and that the unbounded aggrandizement of one state exposed the rest to danger, was sufficiently manifest to experience.

Still it is most essentially necessary to represent in what manner the conduct of France was calculated to operate in its immediate relation to Prussia.

It were superfluous to enumerate all the good offices rendered to Napoleon by Prussia. Prussia was the first power that acknowledged him. No promises, no menaces had been able to shake the king's neutrality. Every thing that the duty of a good neighbour could prescribe was most amply afforded during a period of six years. Prussia esteemed a valiant nation, which also had learned, on its part, to respect Prussia both in war and peace; and she did justice to the genius of its chief. But the remembrance of these times is no longer retained by Napoleon.

Prussia had permitted the territory of Hanover to be invaded. In this she had countenanced an act of injustice; therefore was it her first view to remedy it. She offered herself for it instead of England, under the condition that the latter should cede it. It must, however, at least be recollected, that thus a boundary was prescribed to France, which she should not pass. Napoleon solemnly pledged himself not to compromise the neutrality of the northern states; to exercise no violence towards any of them; and, in particular, not to increase the number of troops in the electorate of Hanover.

Scarcely had he agreed to these stipulations, than he broke them. Every one is acquainted with the violent manner in which sir George Rumbold was seized; every one knows that the hanse towns were laid under contribution, under the appellation of loans, not, by any means, for their interest, but exactly in the same manner as if France had been at war with them. For the first of these injuries, his majesty contented himself with accepting an inadequate satisfaction. Of the second he took no cognizance, being prevented by the apprehensions and representations on the part of the hanse towns. His majesty, on his part, did not scruple to make any sacrifice, as the preservation of peace was the dearest wish of his heart.

The patience and sufferance of every other court were exhausted sooner than that of his majesty. War again broke out on the continent; the situation of the king, with respect to his duty, was more difficult than ever. In order to prevent France from augmenting her troops in Hanover, he had promised to suffer no attack to be made on that territory. The Russians and the Swedes were preparing for an attack on the French. From this period, the whole burden of the contract between France and Prussia weighed upon the latter only, without producing to her the least advantage; and, by a singular concate-

nation of circumstances, it seemed that Prussia, who only wished to remain impartial and neutral, could no longer pursue her former system, except to the prejudice of the allied powers. Every advantage which resulted from this situation of affairs was on the side of France; and the king was daily threatened with a collision, not less formidable to him, than decisively favourable to the plans of Napoleon.

Who could have thought that the very moment when the king had given to the French government the strongest proof of his determination, and a singular example of the faithful fulfilment of engagements into which he had once entered, should be chosen by Napoleon to do the king the most sensible injury? Who does not remember the violation of the territory of Anspach, which took place on the 3d of October, in the last year, notwithstanding the remonstrance of the provincial administration, and of his majesty's minister?

This contest between that moderation which pardons every thing, that integrity which remains true to its engagements to the last, on one part; and the abuse of power, the insolence inspired by deceitful fortune, and the habit of only reckoning on this fortune, on the other, continued several years. The king declared to the French government that he considered all his connections with it as dissolved. He placed his armies on a footing suitable to circumstances. He was now fully convinced, that no pledge of security remained for the neighbours of France, but a peace established upon firm principles, and guaranteed by all the powers in common.

His majesty offered the allies to be the mediator in negotiattons for such a peace, and to support them with all his force. It is sufficient to know the conditions then proposed, to be convinced of the moderation, which, at all times, has governed the politics of his majesty in their whole extent. Prussia, at this moment, listened not to the voice of revenge; she passed over the events of the late war, however violent they might have been, since they had been sanctioned by existing treaties. She required nothing but the punctual fulfilment of those treaties; but this she required without limitation. Count Haugwitz repaired to Vienna, where the French emperor then was.—Scarcely had this minister been there a few days, when the whole face of affairs was changed; the misfortunes experienced by the court of Vienna had compelled it to sign an armistice, which was immediately followed by a peace. The emperor of Russia sacrificed his magnanimous views to the wish of his ally, and his troops returned home. Prussia stood now alone on the field of contest. His majesty was obliged to limit his policy by his powers; and instead, as had been his wish, of embracing the interest of all Europe, made his own security and that of his neighbours, his first object.

[The manifesto then proceeds to recite at length the conduct of Bonaparte with respect to Cleves, Wesel, Hanover, &c.]

It was no longer doubtful that Napoleon had determined to overwhelm Prussia with war, or to ren-

der her for ever incapable of war, since it was evident he was leading her from humiliation to humiliation, till she should be reduced to such a state of political degradation and feebleness, that she could have no other will than that of her formidable neighbour.

The last doubt at length disappeared; troops marched from the interior of France toward the Rhine. The intent to attack Prussia was clear and certain. The king ordered a note to be transmitted by general Knobeldorf, containing the conditions on which he was ready to come to an accommodation. These conditions were:

1. That the French troops should immediately evacuate Germany.

2. That France should oppose no obstacles to the formation of the northern confederacy; and that the confederacy might embrace all the larger and smaller states not included in the fundamental act of the confederation of the Rhine.

3. That a negotiation would immediately be commenced for the adjustment of all objects in dispute; a preliminary article of which should be, the restoration of three abbeys, and the separation of the town of Wesel from the French empire.

These conditions speak for themselves: they show how moderate the king has been in his demands, even at this moment, and how much the maintenance of peace, if France wishes peace, depends upon herself.

The term peremptorily fixed by the king for the decision of peace or war has elapsed. His majesty has not received the answer of the cabinet of St. Cloud; or, rather, the preparations made around him daily give that answer. The king can henceforth confide the safety and honour of his crown only to arms. He leads to honourable combat an army worthy its former glory. He reigns over a people of whom he may be proud; and, while he is ready to shed his blood for them, he knows what he may expect from energy and affection. Princes, the honour of the German name, have joined their banners with his; and a sovereign, who honours with his virtues one of the first thrones in the world, is penetrated with the justice of his cause. His arms are blessed by the voice of his people. With so many motives to be conscious of his strength, Prussia may be permitted continually to confide in her high destiny.

The French emperor proposed to count Haugwitz a treaty, on which was stipulated, on the one side, a mutual guarantee of possessions, the inviolability of the Turkish territory, and the results of the treaty of Presburg; and, on the other, the taking of Hanover by Prussia, in return for the cession of these provinces.

The first part of this treaty promised, at least for the future, an acknowledged, guaranteed, and, if Napoleon had so pleased, a firm, political constitution. The results of the peace of Presburg were a general misfortune for Europe; but Prussia sacrificed herself alone when she accepted them; and to place a limit to the incessant usurpations of France, should the treaty be considered by the court of St. Cloud as any thing more than words, appeared an advantage:

the king, therefore, ratified this article unconditionally.

The second half of the treaty of Vienna related to an object, the importance of which had been manifested by serious experience. Prussia could not rely on security for a moment, so long as Hanover remained involved in a war, in which that country had, in fact, no concern. At whatever price it might be purchased, Prussia was resolved that the French should not return thither. She had her choice to obtain this end, either by a treaty or a war. The cession of three provinces, which had been faithful and happy for a long series of years, was a sacrifice not to be made for the plan of vain ambition; but these provinces, in case of a war, would have been the first sufferers; all the calamities of that war would have pressed upon the monarchy: while the acquisition of Hanover, could it have been made under less unhappy circumstances, would have been productive of the most valuable advantages to Prussia. The king, therefore, conceived that he reconciled his wishes with his principles, when he accepted the proposed exchange, only under the condition that the fulfilment of the same should be deferred till the general peace, and the consent of his majesty the king of Great Britain should be obtained.

All the advantages of this treaty were for France. On the one side she received guarantees, which put the seal on her conquests; on the other, she gave what she did not possess, what might be again conquered by the chances of an uncertain war; while in the cessions of Prussia she found the means of enriching her allies.

But between a policy which will do every thing in its power, and an integrity which regards its duties, and especially its promises, the contest is ever unequal. The king approached the moment when he was convinced of this by experience: this moment was the most painful of his reign.

It was the affair of France to reject the modifications under which the king had confirmed the treaty, if she did not approve them. But she avoided doing this, for the whole Prussian army was still under arms. She continued to be lavish of assurances of friendship; she fulfilled the treaty as far as it suited her; but when his majesty wished to reap the only advantage which he had proposed to himself from the late negotiations, and which was nearest to his heart, she suddenly altered her language. The modifications added to the treaty of Vienna were now rejected at Paris. Endeavours were made to force Prussia into the most injurious measures; and when count Haugwitz, who was at Paris, remonstrated against this, the unconditional fulfilment of the treaty was haughtily insisted on, as were the immediate cession of the three provinces, and the recal of the patent by which the occupation of Hanover was declared provisional. Prussia was required to resign a part of the advantages stipulated, and to shut the ports against the British flag, in the same manner as the French had returned into the electorate.

The king, at length, was perfectly convinced of the true character of the friendship of the emperor of the French: a soporific draught for a power which still feels its own strength; an instru-

ment of degradation, and finally of subjection, to every power which no longer possesses strength.

In the mean time, Napoleon was in possession of every advantage. The Prussian army had returned; his own, after some movements of no consequence, all which deceived Germany prematurely rejoiced, on some frivolous pretences established itself on this side of the Rhine. The first conflict might produce misfortunes. War, which is not, under all circumstances, the greatest of evils, might become such under those then existing. The king determined to continue the part he had hitherto acted for some time longer. Wishing to preserve his force, now more than ever necessary to Europe, and at the least to secure the tranquillity of the north, he confirmed the new treaty. Confidence, however, was now utterly lost. Prussia was convinced that, on the first opportunity to weaken her without danger, she might expect an attack from her pretended ally; convinced there is a degree of ambition which nothing can satisfy, which proceeds, without intermission, from usurpation to usurpation, sometimes without a plan, but ever intent on destruction; careless of the choice of means, and employing alike arms and the pen, violence and oaths. But, even with this conviction, so great is the unfortunate superiority obtained, by such policy, over those who wish only to be just, the king fulfilled all conditions of the treaty with the punctuality of a faithful ally. It is known what the consequences were with respect to the connections of his majesty with England. France gained nothing by this; but she triumphed in secret at the thought of having disunited two courts, the union of which might have been dangerous to her; and what, in the view of France, gave the principal value to her alliance with the king was, that this alliance insolated his majesty, since it produced an opinion, that Prussia was a participator in the cause of so many misfortunes.

But, not content with this, we shall soon see in what manner the politics of France, assured that she had now no enemy to fear, believing that she had annihilated Austria, forming a judgment of Russia with equal ignorance and rashness, and blinded by the apparent tranquillity of Prussia, she at length threw off the mask: and, despising forms which she had hitherto sometimes respected, openly trampled on all treaties and all rights. Three months after the signing of the treaty with Prussia, all its articles were violated.

The treaty had for its basis the *status quo* of the moment in which it was concluded, also the guarantee of the German empire and its states, according to the constitution then established. This truth arises not only from the nature of things: the treaty had also expressly prescribed to the two powers their duties. The relations in which the peace of Presburg had left his majesty the emperor of Austria were guaranteed to him; consequently also the imperial crown of Germany, and the rights connected with it. The existence of Bavaria, and consequently the relations which had connected it for so many centuries to the empire, were likewise confirmed by the same common guarantee. Three months after, the confederation of the Rhine overthrew the Germanic constitution,

deprived the emperor of the ancient ornament of his house, and placed Bavaria, and thirty other princes, under the tutelage of France.

But is it necessary to appeal to treaties, to form a just judgment of this extraordinary event? Previous to all treaties, nations have their rights; and had not France sported with the sanctity of an oath, the act of unexampled despotism would exasperate every mind. To deprive princes who have never offended France, and to render them the vassals of others, themselves the vassals of the French government; to abolish, with the stroke of a pen, a constitution of a thousand years' duration, which long habit, the remembrance of so many illustrious periods, and so many various and mutual relations had rendered dear to such a number of princes; which had been so often guaranteed by all the European powers, and even by France herself; to lay contributions on the cities and towns in the midst of profound peace, and leave the new possessions only an exhausted skeleton; to abolish this constitution without consulting the emperor of Germany, from whom a crown was wrested, or Russia, so lately become the guarantee of the German league; or Prussia, interested intimately in that league thus arbitrarily dissolved. No; wars and continued victories have sometimes produced great and remarkable catastrophes; but such an example, in times of peace, was never before given to the world.

The king commiserated the unfortunate princes who suffered by these transactions; but he pitied not less those who had suffered themselves to be lured by the hope of gain; and he would reproach himself, should he increase their unhappiness by judging them with too great a severity. Deluded by the reward of their compliance; probably forced to obey commands which admitted of no opposition; or, if surprised into consent, sufficiently punished by their acquisitions, and by being reduced to a state of vassalage, as harsh and degrading as their relations were honourable, they deserve not to be treated by Germany with the utmost rigour. Perhaps, when the magnanimous nation to which they formerly belonged arises around them on every side to contend for their independence, they may listen to the voice of gratitude and honour, and, at least, abhor their chains, when they find they must be stained with the blood of their brethren.

It was not enough that these despotic acts were immediately injurious to Prussia. The emperor of France was intent on rendering them sensible to the person of the king in all his states. The existence of the prince of Orange was under the common guarantee of the two powers; for the king had acknowledged the political changes in Holland only under this condition. For several years this prince had expected that his claims, secured by the mutual stipulations of Prussia and France, should be satisfied. The Batavian republic had been willing to enter into an accommodation, but the emperor Napoleon forbade it.—Neither the recollection of the circumstance, nor the consideration of the ties of blood which united his majesty to the prince, nor the declaration, twenty times repeated, that the king could not desert the rights of his brother-in-law, could prevent his being added

to the heap of victims. He was the first who was deprived of his paternal property. Eight days before, he had received from the emperor a letter, condoling with him, in the customary forms, on the death of his father, and wishing him joy on his undisturbed succession to the states of his house. None of these circumstances are unimportant; each throws a light on the whole.

Cleves had been allotted to prince Murat: scarcely become a sovereign, he wishes likewise to become a conqueror. His troops took possession of the abbies of Essen, Werden, and Esten, under the pretext that they appertained to the duchy of Cleves, though they were entirely territories newly acquired, and there was not the shadow of connection between them and the ceded province. Great labour was employed, in vain, to give a colour to this outrage.

Wesel was to belong to the new duke, not to the emperor Napoleon. The king had never resolved to give up the last fortress on the Rhine into the power of France. Without a word of explanation, Wesel was annexed to a French department.

The existing state of the Austrian monarchy, and of the porte, had been mutually guaranteed. The emperor Napoleon certainly wished that Prussia should be bound by this guarantee; for in his hands it was an instrument which he might employ as suited his politics, a pretext for demanding sacrifices in a contest which his ambition might occasion. He himself, however, did not observe it longer than it contributed to his interest. Ragusa, though under the protection of the porte, was taken possession of by his troops. Gradiska and Aquileta were wrested from Austria, under nearly the same pretexts which had been employed when the French seized the three abbies.

In all political proceedings, it was naturally taken for granted, that the new states formed by France were states in the proper sense of the term, and not French provinces. But it cost the cabinet of St. Cloud only a word to deprive them of their independence. The appellation, *the great empire*, was invented, and that empire was immediately surrounded with vassals.

Thus there was no trace of the treaty left, and Prussia proceeded to shut her ports against England, and still considered herself as having obligations to fulfil.

The emperor at length informed his majesty that it was his pleasure to dissolve the German empire, and form a confederation of the Rhine, and he recommended to the king to establish a similar confederation in the north of Germany. This was according to his customary policy; a policy which had long been crowned with success; at the moment of the birth of any new project to throw out a lure to those courts which might occasion difficulties in the execution of such project. The king adopted the idea of such a confederation, not that the advice he received made the least impression on them, but because, in fact, it was rendered necessary by circumstances; and because, after the succession of the princes who had acceded to the confederation of the Rhine, a close union between those of the north became more than ever the condition of their safety. The king took measures

to establish this league, but on other principles from those of the model presented to him. He made it his pride to collect the last of the Germans under his banners; but the rights of each he left unimpaired, and honour alone was the bond of the league.

But could France advise the king to any measure which should be productive of advantage to Prussia? We shall soon see what is to be expected when France makes professions of favour.

In the first place, care had been taken to introduce into the fundamental statute of the confederation of the Rhine an article which contained the germ of all future innovations. It provided, that other princes should be received into this confederation, should they desire it. In this manner, all relations in Germany were left indeterminate; and as the means were still reserved to detach and annex to this league the weaker states, either by promise or threats, it was but too probable that, in time, this confederation would be extended into the heart of the Prussian monarchy.

And, that this might no longer remain doubtful, but be manifest to every one, the first attempt was immediately made. Fortunately, it was made on a prince who knows not fear, and who considers independence as the highest object of his ambition. The French minister at Cassel invited the elector to throw himself into the arms of his master. Prussia, it was alleged, did nothing for her allies! It is true, Napoleon knows how to manage his better; and every one sees that Spain and Holland, and the kings of Wirtemburg and Bavaria, have to thank their alliance with him for peace, independence, and honour! Prussia did nothing for her allies. Napoleon, on the contrary, would reward the accession of the elector by an enlargement of his territory.

And this treachery was exercised towards an ally; and at the very moment when the king was advised to form his alliance of which Hesse was to be the first bulwark, endeavours were made to detach from him a power whom family connections, alliances, and relations of every kind, united in the closest manner to his majesty's person.

But even these hostile steps were not sufficient. Does any one wish to know what was the lure by which it was hoped to gain the elector of Hesse, and what was the augmentation of territory with the expectation of which he was flattered! It was the prince of Orange, the brother-in-law of the king, that prince who had been twice deceived in the most shameful manner, who was now to be robbed the third time! He still possessed the territory of Fulda; this was promised to the elector, and it would have been given, and the elector consented to accept it, had not Prussia taken up arms.

His majesty saw the system of usurpation advance every day; he saw a circle, continually becoming narrower, drawn round him, and even the right of moving within it beginning to be disputed with him; for a sweeping resolution forbade a passage to any foreign troops, armed or not armed, through the states of the confederation. This was to cut off, contrary to the rights of nations, the connection between

the detached Hessian provinces; this was to prepare pretexts on which to act; this was the first threat of punishment aimed at a magnanimous prince, who had preferred a defender to a master.

But even after this, his majesty cannot reflect on it without admiration; the king considered whether a combination might not be found, which should render this state of things compatible with the maintenance of peace.

The emperor Napoleon appeared to be solicitous to remove this doubt. Two negotiations were then carrying on at Paris, one with Russia, the other with the English ministry. In both these negotiations the intentions of France against Prussia were evidently manifested.

By the treaty which the emperor of Russia has refused to ratify, France offered, in conjunction with Russia, to prevent Prussia from depriving the king of Sweden of his German territories. Yet, for many months, the cabinet of St. Cloud had continually pressed the king to seize those states, with the threefold view: 1st. to revenge himself on the king of Sweden; 2dly, to embroil Prussia with all other powers; and, 3dly, to purchase her silence with respect to the subversion of southern Germany. But the king had long been aware that such were the views of France; and his unfortunate dispute with Sweden was painful to him. He had, therefore, been careful to provide against every suspicion of self-interested motives, and he confined his explanations to the emperor Alexander. The scene now again changed; and Napoleon, who had so long been the enemy of the king of Sweden, was suddenly transformed into his protector.

It is not superfluous to remark, that, in this insidious treaty of the French emperor, in order to satisfy the honourable interest which the court of St. Petersburgh took in the maintenance of the rights of the king of Naples, he promised the latter an indemnification; engaging to prevail on the king of Spain to cede to him the Balearic islands. He will act in the same manner with respect to the augmentation of territory he pretends to bestow on his allies.

These were all preludes to the steps he took against Prussia; we now approach the moment which determined his majesty.

Prussia had hitherto derived nothing from her treaties with France but humiliation and loss: one single advantage remained. The fate of Hanover was in her power; and it must remain, unless the last pledge of the security of the north were annihilated. Napoleon had solemnly guaranteed this state of things, yet he negotiated with England on the basis of the restoration of the electorate. The king is in possession of the proofs.

War was now, in fact, declared, declared by every measure taken by France. Every month produced a new notification of the return of his army; but, on one frivolous pretext or another, it was still continued in Germany; and for what purposes? Gracious heaven! to eradicate the last trace of sovereignty among the Germans, to treat kings as governors appointed by himself, to drag before military tribunals, citizens only responsible to their own governments; to declare others outlaws who lived peaceably in fo-

reign states, under foreign sovereigns, and even in the capital of a German emperor, because they had published writings in which the French government, or at least its despotism, was attacked; and this at the time when that same government daily permitted hired libellers to attack, under its protection, the honour of all crowned heads, and the most sacred feelings of nations.

The French troops were in no manner diminished, but continually reinforced and augmented, and continually advanced nearer to the frontiers of Prussia or her allies, till they at length took a position which could only menace Prussia, and were even assembled in force in Westphalia, which certainly was not the road to the mouths of Cattaro.

It was no longer doubtful that Napoleon had determined to overwhelm Prussia with war, or to render her for ever incapable of war, since he was leading her from humiliation to humiliation, till she should be reduced to such a state of political degradation and feebleness, that, deprived of every defence, she could have no other will than that of her formidable neighbour.

The king delayed no longer. He assembled his army. General Knoblesdorff was sent to Paris with the final declaration of his majesty. Only one measure remained which could give security to the king, which was the return of the French troops over the Rhine. General Knoblesdorff had orders to insist on this demand; it was not the whole of the king's just demands, but it was necessary that it should be the first, since it was the condition of his future existence. The acceptance or refusal of it must show the real sentiments of the French emperor.

Unmeaning professions, arguments the real virtue of which were known by long experience, were the only answer the king received. Far from the French army being recalled, it was announced that it would be reinforced; but, with a haughtiness still more remarkable than this refusal, an offer was made, that the troops which had advanced into Westphalia should return home, if Prussia would desist from her preparations. This was not all: it was insolently notified to the king's ministers, that the cities of Hamburgh, Bremen, and Lubeck, would not be suffered to join the northern confederation, but that France would take them under her protection; in the same manner as in the other confederation, she had given away cities, and promulgated laws, without permitting any other power to make the least pretension. The king was required to suffer a foreign interest to be introduced into the heart of his monarchy.

Another contrast of conduct incensed the king to the utmost. He received from the emperor a letter full of those assurances of esteem, which certainly, when they do not accord with facts, ought to be considered as nothing, but which the dignity of sovereigns renders a duty to themselves, even when on the eve of war. Yet a few days afterwards, at a moment when the sword was not yet drawn, when the minister of the emperor endeavoured to mislead those of the king, by assurances on assurances of the friendly intentions of France, the *Publiciste* of the 16th September

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appeared, with a diatribe against the king and the Prussian state, in a style worthy of the most disgraceful periods of the revolution, insulting to the nation, and what, in other times than ours, would have been considered as amounting to a declaration of war.

The king can treat slanderers that are merely abusive with contempt; but, when these slanderers contribute to explain the real state of things, it would be unwise to treat them so.

The last doubt had now disappeared: troops marched from the interior of France towards the Rhine. The intent to attack Prussia was clear and certain. The king ordered a note to be transmitted by general Knoblesdorff, containing the conditions on which he was ready to come to an accommodation. These conditions were:

1. That the French troops should immediately evacuate Germany.

2. That France should oppose no obstacle to the formation of the northern confederacy: and that this confederacy might embrace all the larger and smaller states not included in the fundamental act of the confederation of the Rhine.

3. That a negotiation should immediately be commenced for the adjustment of all differences still in dispute; a preliminary article of which should be, the restoration of the three abbies, and the separation of the town of Wesel from the French empire.

These conditions speak for themselves: they show how moderate the king, even at this moment, has been in his demands, and how much the maintenance of peace depends upon France herself.

The term preremptorily fixed by the king for the decision of peace or war has elapsed. His majesty has not received the answer of the cabinet of St. Cloud; or, rather, the preparations made around him daily give that answer. The king can henceforth confide the safety and honour of his crown only to arms. He takes them up with pain, because the chief object of his wishes was not a glory purchased by the tears of his people, but by their tranquillity; for his cause is just. Never has a sovereign made greater sacrifices to peace. He pushed his condescension to the last limit that honour would allow.

Every thing which was directed against him personally he passed over in silence. The opinions of the ignorant, and the reflections of the slanderous, he despised, animated with the constant hope, that he would be able to conduct his people, without injury, to that period which must sooner or later arrive, when unjust greatness shall find its bounds, and ambition, which obstinately refused to acknowledge any limits, shall at length overleap itself.

The motives which induced his majesty to take up arms are not to satisfy his resentments, to increase his power, or to render a nation uneasy which he shall always esteem, as long as it confines itself to its just and natural interests; but to avert from his kingdom the fate which was preparing for it; to preserve to the people of Frederick their independence and their glory; to rescue unfortunate Germany from the yoke by which it is oppressed,

and to bring about a safe and honourable peace: the day on which he shall effect this, will be the proudest of his life. The events of the war, which is now beginning, are in the disposal of supreme wisdom. His majesty leaves it to others to indulge in premature exultation and gratuitous insult; he has for a long time allowed them the miserable satisfaction arising from unjust invectives. He leads to an honourable combat an army worthy of its former glory. He reigns over a people of whom he may be proud; and, while he is ready to shed his blood for them, he knows what he may expect from their energy and affection. Princes, the honour of the German name, who can confide in his gratitude and honour, and who, fighting by his side, are not dubious of victory, have joined their banners with his; and a sovereign, who adorns with his virtues one of the first thrones in the world, is penetrated with the justness of his cause. Every where his arms are blessed by the voice of the people, and even where they are silent from fear, their impatience is the greater. With so many motives to be conscious of her strength, Prussia may well be permitted continually to confide in her high destiny.

Head-quarters, Erfurt, 9th Oct., 1806.

KING OF PRUSSIA'S PROCLAMATION TO HIS ARMY.

All the efforts of his majesty, and of his allies, to maintain peace, have proved fruitless; and war is enevitable, unless the north of Germany, and, perhaps, all Europe be abandoned to the will of an enemy who knows neither restraint nor repose, and given up to his plundering armies.

His majesty has determined upon war, because the honour and safety of the nation were in danger. He would have esteemed himself happy had he been able to have preserved peace without shedding blood: the army, the nation, the whole world, are persuaded of this; and it is with the greatest confidence that his majesty leads his troops to battle, to defend their country, and the national honour, because justice is on the side of Prussia.

That the army have long wished for war, has not escaped his majesty's notice; and if, owing to considerations arising from the circumstances of the moment, his majesty has not sooner yielded to their wishes, he has nevertheless not been inattentive to them, because he is convinced that the voice of honour and of patriotism, which the army has always publicly manifested, have alone inspired them with these sentiments. The whole nation has already exhibited the lively interest which it takes in this war; and it is a great consolation to his majesty, to think, that the events which are about to take place are not only unavoidable, but that they have also the general assent of his people.

His majesty is convinced that the spirit of honour and of glory, which the genius of the great Frederick has disseminated among the Prussians, will inspire the army with its natural bravery, and enable it to support the inevitable fatigues of war; but in the

present war there is another object, and considerations still more important.

We have to contend against an enemy who has beaten numerous armies around us, who has humbled the most powerful states, destroyed the most respectable constitutions, and deprived more than one nation of its independence and its name.

This is the fate for which we were reserved. Numerous armies already threaten our frontiers, and are daily augmenting. The Prussian monarchy is threatened with extinction, and even to become the portion of a stranger; and our proud and greedy enemies already reckon upon the division of the north of Germany.

We fight, therefore, for our independence, for our honour, for all that is dear to us; and if God grants victory to the justice of our cause, to our arms, and to the courage which, without contradiction, animates every Prussian, we shall be the saviours of thousands who are oppressed. Undoubtedly there is not an individual in the army, from the field-marshal to the private soldier, who can remain unconcerned under the present circumstances. Every soldier who may fall in this struggle will die for the sacred cause of humanity, and all who survive will acquire, together with immortal glory, their share in the gratitude resulting from the happiness and the tears of joy shed by those who shall be saved from the general disaster.

Who among us can bear the idea of seeing his country delivered up to the rapacity of a foreigner. But let us further consider, that, in fighting for ourselves, and repelling the most shameful degradation which can possibly menace a nation, we shall be at the same time the saviours and deliverers of Germany. The eyes of every nation are fixed upon us, as upon the last support of all liberty, political existence, and order in Europe. That victory which is the object of our wishes, is not of a common cast. The end we propose to ourselves is great; but the means of an enemy intoxicated with his victories are great also: our efforts, therefore, ought to be extraordinary and decisive.

His majesty will joyfully partake of the efforts, the dangers, and fatigues which his troops will have to sustain. He is sensible of what he may expect from his brave soldiers; he knows their unalterable zeal, their intrepid firmness, their indefatigable vigilance, and their unshaken fidelity, will never abandon them a moment; and that, under no circumstances whatever, will they ever forget the high destinies which are to complete their glory. The fate of nations and armies is, in fact, in the hand of Providence; but the Almighty almost always gives victory to a just cause: that cause we will defend. We possess the confidence which it has given us. Our contemporaries will applaud our zeal; and our enterprizes will be crowned with the most brilliant success.

Given at the head-quarters at Erfurt, Oct. 9, 1806.

BONAPARTE'S PROCLAMATION TO THE SAXONS.

SAXONS!

The Prussians have seized upon your territory; I step forward

for its deliverance. They have forcibly broke the ties which united your troops, and attached them to their army. You have to shed your blood for interests which are not only alien, but hostile to you. My armies were on the point of leaving Germany when your territory was violated; they shall return to France as soon as Prussia acknowledges your independence, and renounces the designs which she formed against you.

Saxons!

Your prince had until this moment declined to form alliances which are so repugnant to his duties; if he has since consented to them, he has only been compelled by the invasion of the Prussians.

I was deaf to the repeated provocations which Prussia gave to my people; I was deaf to them as long as she confined her armaments within her own boundaries; and my minister did not leave Berlin until she had violated your land.

Saxons!

Your fate is in your own hands. Would you hesitate between those who subdued you and those who are willing to protect you? My victories will ensure the existence and independence of your Prince. The victories of Prussia will lay everlasting fetters on you. Tomorrow they will demand the Lausitz, and the next day the banks of the Elbe. But what do I say? Have they not already demanded every thing? Have they not for a long time past endeavoured to force your prince to acknowledge a sovereignty, which, if submitted to, would blot you from the list of nations.

Your independence, your constitution, and your liberty, would then only exist in remembrance. The shades of your ancestors, of the brave Saxons, would be disgraced, should you without resistance be consigned to the slavery which has been so long premeditated; and by your country being degraded so low as to constitute a Prussian province.

Given at our head-quarters, at Ebersdorf, Oct. 11.

NAPOLEON.

OFFICIAL ADDRESSES AT PARIS.

MINISTRY OF WAR.

To the Generals commanding the Military Divisions, the Prefect of Departments, and the Commissaries-General.

Paris, October 14th, 1806.

A new and unexpected aggression, gentlemen, has forced the emperor to quit his capital, and place himself in the midst of his armies.

His majesty, upon repeated protestations of peace and friendship, had seen without mistrust the armaments of Prussia. He was going to call back his army to triumphal fetes; the moment for their return was chosen, the signal given; at this very moment Prussia raised against us the cry of war.

The emperor, obliged suddenly to convert preparations of peace into military show, hastened whither the honour of his crown and the peril of his allies called him; he hardly arrived, when rapid dispositions had already preserved them from an invasion long since meditated.

This moment, gentlemen, is a

double call on the courage of those who fight abroad before the eyes of the sovereign, and on the zeal of those who serve him at home. The task of the latter, for being less glorious, is neither the less useful nor the less appreciated.

Having remained depositaries of his majesty's confidence, your efforts ought to redouble to fulfil it, and increase with the difficulties. The maintenance of public order, the speedy execution of the laws, especially those which contribute to the success of our arms, the concert and harmony of all the authorities, should be, more than ever, the object of your care and attention.

Let the emperor, gentlemen, upon leading back his armies covered with new laurels, feel an equal satisfaction at the services rendered on both sides; and let him, upon casting a look from the field of battle upon the interior, perceive that, with less show, your devotion is neither less entire nor less active.

I salute you with distinguished consideration.

For the Minister of War,
The Minister Director of the Administration of War.

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MINISTRY OF THE GRAND JUDGE.

The Grand Judge, Minister of Justice, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, to the Imperial Attornies-General of the Courts of Criminal Justice.

Paris, October 17th, 1806.

The partisans of the war have contrived, gentlemen, to make their deplorable influence prevail in the cabinet of Berlin, and when the emperor, touched with the misfortunes of Europe, was endeavouring to establish the continental peace upon durable bases, which might at length let nations breathe, and for a long while remove the calamities of war, a king, whom so many motives ought to keep closely united to France, suddenly assumes a menacing attitude against us; and, far from these unexpected demonstrations of hostilities ready to commence being put a stop to by the moderation of the emperor, he dared to dictate to victorious France conditions which in the very midst of misfortunes her august chief would have rejected with disdain.

Moderation has its bounds; a just resentment ought to succeed it when the nation is outraged and provoked by the most inconceivable aggression. May the blood which is about to be shed be for ever a reproach to those sinister counsellors who mislead kings; and who, blinding them with regard to their true interests, hurl them into perils which may shake their throne!

The emperor marches at the head of his brave legions, ever animated with the same spirit, always faithful and always devoted. Let us imitate in the interior their noble and generous example; and if it be not given to us as to our valorous youth, to shed our blood for the justest of causes; at least let us serve it with all our efforts and all our means. No Frenchman can be indifferent to such dear interests without becoming criminal; but, independent of the obligations which are common to public functionaries and other citizens, the former have particular ones to fulfil, and which should be ever

present to them in the conjunctures we are in. Thus, during the absence of the emperor, all his servants should redouble their zeal, vigilance, and activity, so that, though absent, his spirit may yet seem to reside amongst us, and animate all parts of public administration. This is principally addressed to you, gentlemen, who are specially charged with the maintenance of public order, and the prosecution of offences which may attack it. Vigilant and indefatigable centinels, do not let guilt hope for a single moment of relaxation or sleep; attach yourselves more especially to the entire repression of those odious crimes which I pointed out to you in my circular letter of the 3d instant. Every thing which is injurious to the conscription is a real sore to the state; it is by vigour and constancy in the application of the remedy, that it is to be cured.

In a word, neglect nothing to answer the confidence with which his majesty has honoured you, and merit that at his return he may condescend to approve your conduct, which will be for you the most grateful as well as the most glorious recompense.

Receive, gentlemen, the assurance of my affectionate sentiments.

REGNIER.

ADDRESS OF THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT TO THE SENATE.

Paris, October 16.

On Tuesday last, at 12 o'clock, in execution of the orders of his majesty the emperor and king, the prince arch-chancellor of the empire repaired to the senate. The prince was received in the usual forms, and after having taken his seat spoke as follows:

Gentlemen,

The letter which his majesty the emperor and king has written to the senate, and the communication which I have just made from him, are for the purpose of informing you of a resolution become necessary in consequence of the conduct of the Prussian government.

People ask what are the causes of a rupture difficult to be foreseen, from the good understanding which had prevailed for several years between France and Prussia, and more especially from the relations of interest common to both nations.

The solution of this question is to be found in the reports made to his majesty, by his minister for foreign affairs, and in several notes exchanged by the ministers of the two powers.

These state papers you are going to hear read will convince you, gentlemen, that his majesty has left nothing undone to preserve peace, and that he for a long time entertained hopes of it. You will also perceive that the dignity of his crown, and the obligations which the protection and guarantee he grants to the confederate states on the Rhine, impose on his majesty, must have determined him to repel by force.

No sovereign is less capable than the emperor of dreading war, none will be at all times more disposed to stop the effusion of blood by the re-establishment of peace.

In the war now beginning, as in those which have been so gloriously terminated, his majesty has for himself the testimony of his conscience and the justice of his

cause: he reckons on the love of his people and the courage of his armies; he also places an entire confidence in your zeal, so often put to trial for his service, and for the welfare of the state, which is inseparable from it.

His serene highness then delivered:

1. A letter from his majesty the emperor and king, to the president and members of the senate.
2. Two reports addressed to his majesty the emperor and king by the prince of Benevento, minister for foreign affairs;
3. Six diplomatic notes.

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The Report addressed to his Majesty the Emperor and King, by the Minister for Foreign Affairs, the 30th September, 1806.

SIRE,

Your majesty, on the first intelligence you received of the arming of Prussia, was a long time before you would give any credit to it. Forced to believe it, you were pleased to attribute it to a misunderstanding. You hoped that this misunderstanding would be shortly cleared up, and that then this arming would cease.

The hopes of your majesty originated in your constant love of peace. They have been disappointed. Prussia is no longer meditating war, she has made it: from what motives I am ignorant, and I do not know a single one she can allege.

Had Prussia any subject of complaint, any grievance, any reason to arm, would she have obstinately continued silent? Would not your majesty's minister at Berlin have been informed of her motives? Would not general Knoblesdorff have been instructed to make them known. On the contrary, general Knoblesdorff only brought to your majesty a very friendly letter from the king, and received assurances equally friendly from the very mouth of your majesty. Your majesty's minister at Berlin beheld preparations continue, arrogance increase, and provocations accumulate, in proportion as your majesty displayed more moderation and passiveness. But if he asked what were the grievances of Prussia, not one was mentioned, not the least explanation was given him; so that his presence was become useless at Berlin; so that he was nothing more than the witness of proceedings and measures contrary to the dignity of France.

Supposing even that absurd reports, listened to with an inconceivable credulity, had inspired the Prussian cabinet with vain alarms, your majesty, who had done every thing to prevent them, had also done every thing to dissipate them.

From what dangers did Prussia seek to guarantee herself? France, far from threatening her, had never given her any other than the most signal proofs of her friendship. From what sacrifices did she wish to withdraw? Your majesty had demanded nothing of her. Of what denial of justice had she to complain? Every thing she asked in justice your majesty was disposed to grant her, but she made no demand, because she had none to make.

Is it the existence of the confederacy of the Rhine? Is it the arrangements which have taken place in the south of Germany, that have induced Prussia to take up arms? Even this supposition

is not admissible. The court of Berlin has declared that it had no objections to make against these arrangements. It recognized the confederacy, it took measures uniting to itself in a similar confederacy the surrounding states.

Your majesty has, it is true, declared, that the hanse towns should remain independent and separate from every confederacy; you declared that the other states in the north of Germany should be free to consult only their policy, and what suited them best: but these declarations, founded on justice and the general interest of Europe, could not furnish Prussia with a motive for war, nor even a pretext which she can avow.

The war on the side of Prussia is then without any real motive.

Nevertheless the Prussian armies have passed beyond their limits; they have invaded Saxony, they threaten the territory of the confederacy of the Rhine, the inviolability of which your majesty is a guarantee. Even the troops of your majesty are threatened: barely arrived before our advanced posts, the Prussian troops did war duty. They refused to let the French officers enter Saxony, and the war broke out, without the court of Berlin having made known the subjects of its pretended discontent, without it having tried measures of conciliation, without it having done any thing to avoid a rupture.

So obstinate, so unnatural, so incomprehensible a silence on one part; on the other a preparation not less inconceivable, sufficiently proves that we are not to seek for even an apparent motive in what is nothing more than the result of a deplorable intrigue.

Two parties, one of which seeks for war and the other for peace, have for a long time past divided Prussia. The first, whose attempts had been constantly defeated, perceiving it could only succeed through artifice, had but one thought, one design, one end; that of exciting mistrust, presenting, as necessary, measures calculated to force France to adopt similar ones; afterwards to set aside all explanations, prevent the two governments from coming to a good understanding, and place them in such a situation, that war should be the inevitable consequence: unfortunate scheme, executed with a success that its authors will one day be forced to name fatal.

No; the present war has no other cause. There exists no other than those blind passions which have misled so many cabinets, from which Prussia so long preserved herself, but of which it appears Providence has condemned her to become likewise a victim, by delivering her over to the councils of those who reckon the calamities of war as nothing, because they are not to share its dangers, and are always ready to sacrifice to their ambition, fears, prejudices, and weakness, the repose and happiness of nations.

If, however, those passions are not the only movers of the cabinet of Berlin, and if any motive of personal interest is the cause of its taking arms; it is incontestibly and solely the desire of bringing Saxony and the hanse towns into subjection, and removing or surmounting the obstacles which the declarations of your majesty have caused it to apprehend meeting with, in the execution of such a design. The war, then, what-

ever be the regret your majesty may feel at being unable to prevent it, will at least offer you a perspective worthy of you, since, in defending the rights and interests of your people, you will preserve states from an unjust dominion, whose independence imports, not only to France and to her allies, but even to all Europe.

C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Mentz, 3d October, 1806.

Copy of the first Note addressed to his Excellency General Knoblesdorff, by his Imperial Highness Prince of Benevento, Minister for Foreign Affairs, dated 11th September.

The undersigned, minister for foreign affairs, is charged by the express order of his majesty the emperor and king, to acquaint his excellency general Knoblesdorff, that new information from Berlin, dated the beginning of September, states that the garrison of that city had left it in order to repair to the frontiers, that all the armaments appeared to have redoubled in activity, and that they were publicly represented, even at Berlin, as directed against France.

These dispositions of the court of Berlin have the more surprised his majesty, as he was still further from suspecting them on account of the mission of general Knoblesdorff, and the letter from his majesty the king of Prussia, of which he was the bearer.

His majesty the emperor and king has ordered new reinforcements to be sent to his army: prudence commanded him to take measures that might enable him to resist a scheme of aggression as unexpected as unjust. Still it will never be but in spite of himself, and against his dearest wish, that he shall see himself forced to unite the forces of his empire against a power which nature herself has destined to be the friend of France; because it had connected together the two states before they were united by treaties. He complains of the inconsiderateness of the agent who has concurred in causing to be adopted, as useful and necessary, the measures of the court of Berlin. But his sentiments for his majesty the king of Prussia have never been changed or weakened, and will not be, so long as his majesty shall not be forced to think that the armaments of Prussia are the result of a system of aggression, in conjunction with Russia against France; and when intrigue, which appears to have busied itself in so many ways, and under so many forms, to inspire the cabinet of Berlin with prepossessions against its best and most faithful ally, shall have ceased, when it shall no longer threaten by preparations a nation which hitherto has not been easily intimidated. His majesty the emperor will regard that moment as the happiest for himself and for his majesty the king of Prussia. He will be the first to countermand the movements of the troops he has ordered; to intercept armaments ruinous to his treasury, and the relations between the two states shall be re-established in their usual intimacy.

It is no doubt highly satisfactory for his majesty not to have given, either directly or indirectly, any room for the misunderstanding which appears ready to break out between the two states; and

not to be responsible for the result of this singular and strange contest, since he has never ceased making constantly, by the organ of his envoy extraordinary and by the undersigned, all the declarations calculated to defeat the intrigues, which, notwithstanding his cares, have prevailed at Berlin: but it is at the same time for his imperial majesty a great subject for reflection and grief to think, that when the alliance of Prussia appeared to allow him to diminish the number of his troops, and to direct all his forces against the common foe, who is also that of the continent, it is against his ally himself that he is forced to take precautions.

The last intelligence from Berlin diminishing considerably the hopes that the emperor had founded upon general Knoblesdorff's mission, and on the king of Prussia's letter, and appearing to confirm the opinions of those who think that the armament of Prussia, without any previous explanation, is only the consequence and the first developement of a system combined with the enemies of France, his majesty sees himself obliged to bestow on his preparations a general, public, and national character. Still it is his wish that the undersigned should declare, that even after the publicity of the extraordinary measures to which his majesty has been obliged to have recourse, he is not the less disposed to believe that the armament of the court of Berlin is only the effect of a misunderstanding, originating in false reports, and to replace himself when his armament shall cease, in the same system of good understanding, alliance, and friendship which has hitherto united the two states.

The undersigned, &c.

C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Copy of a Note of General Knoblesdorff to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, dated 12th September, 1806.

The undersigned feeling it of the highest importance to give an immediate answer to the note which his excellency the prince of Benevento, minister for foreign affairs, did him the honour to address him this evening, is forced to confine himself to presenting the following observations thereon. The motives which have engaged the king my master to make armaments have not been the effect of a plot of the enemies of France and Prussia, who, jealous of the intimacy subsisting between the two powers, had done every thing possible to spread alarm, by false reports come at once from all sides. But what more especially proves the spirit of the measures, is, that his majesty has not concerted it with any one, and that the intelligence has reached Paris earlier than Vienna, Petersburgh, or London. But the king his master has caused to be made to the envoy of his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, a friendly communication on the subject of these measures. That minister had not, at the date of my last advices, given any answer to this communication. The relation of the interesting conferences to which his majesty was pleased to admit the

undersigned and the marquis Lucchesini had not then arrived at Berlin. Pursuant to this statement the undersigned cannot but testify to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, his most ardent wish that the public acts may still remain suspended until the return of the courier dispatched to Berlin.

The undersigned intreats his excellency, &c.

GENERAL KNOBLESDORFF.

LEIPSIC NOTIFICATION.

General Macon, deputy Governor of the Thuilleries, &c., Commandant of Leipsic, to all Bankers, Merchants, and Shop-keepers of this City.

GENTLEMEN,

The fortune of war has put Leipsic into the hands of Napoleon the Great. Your city is celebrated in Europe, as the grand staple of English merchandize, and is in this respect a dangerous enemy to France.

I. Within the first twenty four hours after this notification, each banker, merchant, or dealer, having English property, money, or goods, in their possession, shall enter a declaration of the same in writing, in a register opened for that purpose by the commandant of the place.

II. These declarations being made in an authentic manner, those persons who make the declarations, and those who do not, shall be subject to domiciliary visits, in order to inspect both their books and their goods, and thus to obtain assurances of their good faith, or to punish any deception, according to law.

III. The magistrates are also charged upon their responsibility, to make a just and circumstantial return of the contents of the magazines, both Prussian and Saxon, and even the powder magazines which belong to the merchants.

IV. A commission shall be named, who shall be charged to impose seals upon all the magazines or warehouses which may be discovered the day after to morrow.

V. All contributions, or particular requisitions, whether of cloth, money, or horses, are strictly prohibited, unless made by the above-mentioned authority. The inhabitants, or the members of the administrations, who may be weak enough to submit to any such requisitions, without informing the commandant of the place of the same, shall be subject to 15 days imprisonment.

VI. The present notification shall be read in all the public places, and at the corners of the streets.

MACON.

Leipsic, Oct. 18, 1807.

RUSSIAN PROCLAMATION.

The events which have spread over Europe the horrors of bloodshed and desolation, from an insatiable thirst of conquest and aggrandizement in the present usurped government of France, are manifested to the whole world. Our endeavours to set bounds to this evil, and to preserve the tranquillity and integrity of powers in alliance with us by pacific measures, all proved ineffectual. The

perfidy with which the common enemy violates the sanctity of treaties and the rights of nations, threatening Europe with universal devastation, incited us at last to take up arms in support of neighbouring kingdoms. The series of disasters that befel the Austrian armies obliged that monarchy to conclude a disadvantageous peace, on terms dictated by the ambition of the conqueror, and the dire necessity of circumstances. After this, Prussia, vainly attempting to check the mischief by establishment of a general and solid peace, through the means of negociation, notwithstanding all her sacrifices for the sake of preserving an alliance with France, notwithstanding all her compliances with the demands of this common enemy, could not long remain exempt from the calamities of war. Lulled into a state of delusive security by the prospect of peace, which she vainly hoped to enjoy, and the mistaken confidence she reposed in a treacherous ally, she was suddenly plunged into the very abyss of ruin. The armies of Napoleon falling on the Prussian troops before they had been able to unite, defeated them, and made an easy conquest of the defenceless capital, and seized the greatest part of the provinces of that kingdom.

In such a situation of affairs, seeing this neighbouring power, which divided the western borders of our empire from France, destitute of all further means of defence, it became indispensably necessary for us to advance our armies, under the command of field-marshal count Kamenskoy, for the defence of our territories, menaced on that side with a hostile invasion; and having implored the protection of the Almighty, who ever espouses the cause of the just, we ordered every effort to be made for the defeat of this dangerous assailant, who, in the proclamations he has published, carries his audacity so far, as openly to threaten that he will extend his triumph even over our dominions.

At the commencement of this inevitable war, the whole burthen of which, after the total overthrow of our allies, devolves upon our country, we consider it our first duty to redouble our unceasing efforts for the preservation of the tranquillity and integrity of our empire, by augmenting and collecting the armed force of a faithful, brave, and magnanimous people, entrusted to our administration by Almighty Providence. The miseries which have so rapidly overtaken the neighbouring powers evince the necessity of recourse to unusual means, to great and vigorous measures, which can only be carried into effect by a zealous attachment to our country, by a manly firmness of spirit, and a true sense of national honour. A people really inspired and actuated by sentiments of that description, arming in a body, may raise an insurmountable rampart against every hostile attack, however formidable. Neglect in providing for their internal security, by such general armaments, during the present contest with France, in opposition to her system of plunder and rapine, has been attended with the most pernicious consequences to Austria, and not a little contributed to the downfal of Prussia.

Their fate was determined by

the loss of a few battles; after which the enemy meeting no obstacle, and dreading no opposition from an unarmed populace, suddenly forced his way through the inferior provinces, spread devastation and terror, by his rapid and violent depredations, destroyed the scattered remains of a routed army, and effected a total overthrow of their empires. The bravery of the Russian troops, and the victories which their unexampled firmness, for the course of a century past, has gained over every foreign foe, to the remotest corners of the earth; the trophies still existing in various parts of these realms which have been extended by their achievements; and the recollection of the glory they have thus acquired, affords us the strongest ground to hope that on the present occasion, under the dispensations of Providence, whose blessing attends the arms of the just, all the machinations of our enemies may be confounded, and that the only traces they leave behind them upon our soil will be their own grave.

The immense tract of country upon which these armies must act, occasioning many difficulties in the way of their speedy and mutual co-operation for the defence of an extensive frontier, the evident danger which would arise in case (which God forbid should ever happen) the enemy might penetrate into the interior of our empire, compel us to adopt the most efficacious measures to avert it, by the establishment of a general temporary armament or militia, which may be ready in all quarters at a moment's notice, to support the regular troops, and able to oppose to the enemy at every step the invincible force of the true sons of their country, united for the preservation of their most valuable enjoyments.

In such arduous circumstances, we refer with the fullest confidence to the distinguished order of the hereditary nobility of our empire, by whose faithful services in the field of battle, and extensive sacrifices both of life and property, Russia has been elevated to her present greatness, to that order by which examples of heroism has on all occasions animated and assisted the subordinate members of the empire to participate in the salvation, defence, and glory of our country. The memorable proofs of patriotism and of loyalty displayed in ancient and modern times by the nobility of Russia, and their well known readiness on every occasion, where the common good requires their exertions, to obey the summons of their sovereign, and to meet with spirit every toil, and every danger for the service of the empire, convince us how cordially, zealously, and efficaciously it will co-operate with us for the speedy and successful completion of such a provisional armament or militia, as is indispensably required, and now ordained for public security, according to the regulations annexed hereto.

We are likewise well assured, that our faithful corporations, and every class of citizens, as well as the crown peasants, and free boors through the country, will unite their efforts to bear the common burden of this important public duty for the defence of our holy faith, and for individual preservation.

May the servants of the church of God offer up in concert with ourselves, and all our faithful sub-

jects, the most fervent prayers towards the Supreme Disposer of events, that he may shed his divine favour on our efforts to avert the common danger, to vanquish and exterminate the foe, and to restore the blessings of peace and tranquillity in the heart of our empire.

[To this manifesto is annexed a proclamation for erecting immediately a provisional force, or militia, of 612,000 men. For this purpose the different governments throughout the Russian empire are divided into seven districts, each of which, according to the plan laid down, is to furnish a certain number of troops. These seven armies, or contingents of districts, were to be formed as soon as the different preliminary measures, such as the making out lists, and appointing officers, had been gone through; but they were to continue no longer embodied than the present danger existed.]

NOTE OF CHARLES MAURICE TALLEYRAND, PRINCE OF BENEVENTO, DELIVERED IN AFTER THE ARMISTICE WITH PRUSSIA WAS SIGNED.

The undersigned minister for foreign affairs has received his imperial and royal majesty's commands to declare to their excellencies the marquis Lucchesini and the general Von Zastrow, plenipotentiaries of his majesty the king of Prussia, as follows:

Four coalitions, of which the last has brought on the present war, were formed against France: all four have been conquered; the victories which his imperial and royal majesty has gained over them have subjected under his power very extensive dominions. Thrice has France, actuated by a moderation unexampled in history, determined to give back the whole, or at least the greater part of her conquests, and has established princes upon their thrones, without any great diminution of that power which they had forfeited in consequence of the emperor's victories.

Although the emperor has thrice acted in this manner, yet he is willing once more to display his extraordinary moderation, though it might produce, before the lapse of ten years, even a fifth coalition.

In the course of those continually renewed wars, France, Spain, and Holland have lost their colonies. It is natural, it is just, that those countries which, by the laws of war, have come into the possession of the emperor, should serve as compensations for those colonies. But the most material injury which the fourth coalition has done to France is, that the porte has lost its independence. Wallachia and Moldavia were governed by two men who were justly deposed by the porte; but she has been forced to reinstate them in their dignities by the threats of Russia; and those concessions on the part of the porte may be reckoned as actual conquests by Russia: if, therefore, the total independence of the porte ought to be a chief point to France, his majesty the emperor would lose the greatest advantage of his victories, if he were not to obtain the guarantee of the future independence of that power.

His imperial majesty, therefore, cannot in the least consent

to the restoration of the conquered countries until the full enjoyment of the rights of the porte over Wallachia and Moldavia is acknowledged, and its total independence recognized and guaranteed.

The undersigned has the honour to renew to their excellencies the marquis Lucchesini, and the general Von Zastrow, the assurance of his high consideration.

C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Berlin, Nov. 10.

IMPERIAL UKASE.

Alexander, Emperor of all the Russias, &c.

Our manifesto of the 30th of August declared the situation of our affairs with the French government.

At that period of our hostile situation, Prussia still formed a barrier between us and the French, who tyrannized over various parts of Germany. But soon after the fire of war blazed out in Prussia also; after various disasters, and important losses on her part, our own dominions on the frontiers are now threatened by the flame.

To the Russians, accustomed to love the glory of their country, and to sacrifice every thing to it, it is unnecessary to explain how unavoidable these events have made the present war.

Honour unsheathed our sword for the protection of our allies; how much more justly must it be drawn for the defence of our own safety? Before these events could approach our frontiers, we took, at an early period, every measure to be ready to meet them. Having, in good time, ordered our army to move beyond the frontier, we have now commissioned our general, field-marshal Kamenskoy, to command it, and to act against the enemy with all the forces entrusted to him.

We are assured, that all our faithful subjects will join us in fervent prayers to the Almighty, who directs the fate of states, and the issue of battles, that he may take our righteous cause under his all-powerful protection, that his victorious strength and blessing may direct the Russian armies employed for repelling the general foe of Europe.

We are confident, that our faithful subjects of the government on the frontier will, in the present circumstances particularly, redouble the proofs of their attachment and their zeal for the common good; and that, unshaken by fear or delusive promises, they will tread with firmness the same path in which, under the protection of the laws, and of a mild government, they have hitherto enjoyed tranquillity and undisputed property, and shared in the universal prosperity of the whole empire.

Lastly, we are confident, that all the children of the land, relying on the help of God, on the valour of troops, and on the known experience of their leader, will spare no sacrifice, no efforts which patriotism and the safety of our country may demand.

St. Petersbugh, Nov. 28, 1806.

FRENCH PROCLAMATION.

His excellency marshal Mortier has caused the following proclamation to be published in Hamburgh:

His excellency the marshal of the empire, Mortier, having remarked in the account which has been delivered in to him, that the declaration hitherto made of the possession of English merchandize offers a very unsatisfactory result; considering that those merchants and tradesmen to whom they belong may have acted with too great haste, and have given in the aforesaid declarations, without having bestowed on them all the attention and reflection they require; considering also that the numerous occupations of the business intrusted to him of keeping the register of inspection, enjoins every individual, having in his possession merchandize belonging to English or coming from English manufactories, to appear in forty-eight hours, from the 24th November, before the muster-master, *ad interim*, of the 8th corps of the grand army, where they must make a declaration and inscription on a register opened for that purpose, numbered and signed by the general in chief of the staff, of all the merchandize in their possession, belonging, as already stated, to the English, or coming from the English manufactories.

The period of forty-eight hours being expired, domiciliary visits shall be made, and all offenders against the present order shall be punished in a military manner.

Every merchant or tradesman, having already made a declaration, shall be bound to appear anew, and repeat his inscription, before the aforesaid muster-master, Grœninger Strasse.

Hamburgh, Nov. 23, 1806.

NOTE, ADDRESSED BY HIS EXCELLENCY THE MINISTER OF FRANCE, TO THE SENATE OF HAMBURGH, ON THE 24TH OF NOVEMBER, 1806.

The undersigned, minister plenipotentiary of the emperor of the French and king of Italy, near the states of Lower Saxony, has received the order of his sovereign to make known to the senate of the city of Hamburgh, that

England, not admitting the law of nations, as practised by every civilized people; making prisoners of war of individuals, who do not belong to the military; taking and confiscating private property; blockading places which lawfully cannot be blockaded, as well as commercial towns not fortified, bays, and the mouths of rivers; declaring in a state of blockade places that are not so, and that nature itself has rendered it impossible to blockade:

France has been placed under the necessity of taking against the British islands, the subjects of England, their property of every kind, that may be found in the territories, cities, and harbours, which are, or shall be, occupied by the French armies; against the vessels that may come from the British islands or colonies, and that may enter these harbours, as well as against those that may attempt to leave the said harbours to repair to those

of Great Britain, the same measures which England has sanctioned by her maritime code.

That, in consequence thereof, his majesty the emperor and king has declared the British islands in a state of blockade; and with regard to English subjects, their property, and the vessels that may come from the British islands or possessions, or that may attempt to repair thither, has ordained measures to be taken, that are justified by the right of a natural defence.

His majesty the emperor and king not having been induced to this step by the interest of France only, but having also the intention, and considering it his duty, to preserve the continent from the misfortune with which it is menaced, as the violences practised by England are evidently designed to destroy the intercourse of nations, and to establish her industry and her commerce on the ruins of the industry and commerce of the continent; whence it results, that every person, who trades on the continent in English merchandize, seconds the views of England, and ought to be considered as her accomplice.

A great portion of the inhabitants of the city of Hamburgh being in this predicament, and notoriously attached to England, his majesty the emperor and king, with regret, sees himself compelled to cause *possession* to be taken of this city, and to ordain the execution of measures required by the principles above recited; measures that the undersigned is directed to notify in the following manner.

I. All English merchandize that may be found in the city, in the harbour, or on the territory of Hamburgh, *no matter to whom they may belong*, (n'importe à qui elles appartiennent) shall be confiscated.

II. All the English, or English subjects that may be found in the city, the harbour, or on the said territory, shall be prisoners of war.

III. All moveable, or fixed property, belonging to the English, or English subjects in the city of Hamburgh, its harbour, or territory, shall be confiscated.

IV. No vessel coming from England, or that may have touched there, can enter the said port, or approach the said city.

V. Any vessel that, by means of a false declaration, shall attempt to leave the said harbour and city to repair to England, shall be confiscated.

VI. No English courier, nor mail of English letters shall be received in the the city, harbour, or territory of Hamburgh, nor even permitted to pass.

The undersigned has the honour to renew to the senate the assurances of his high consideration.

BOURRIENNE.

[A similar note has been sent to the senate of the cities of Bremen and Lubeck.]

IMPERIAL DECREE, DECLARING THE BRITISH ISLES IN A STATE OF BLOCKADE.

Imperial Camp, Berlin, Nov. 21, 1806.

Napoleon, emperor of the French, and king of Italy, considering:

1. That England does not ad-

mit the right of nations as universally acknowledged by all civilized people;

2. That she declares as an enemy every individual belonging to an enemy state, and in consequence makes prisoners of war, not only of the crews of *armed* vessels, but those also of *merchant* vessels, and even the supercargoes of the same;

3. That she extends or applies to merchant vessels, to articles of commerce, and to the property of individuals, the right of conquest, which can only be applied or extended to what belongs to an enemy state;

4. That she extends to ports not fortified, to harbours and mouths of rivers, the *right of blockade*, which, according to reason and the usage of civilized nations, is applicable only to strong or fortified ports;

5. That she declares blockaded places before which she has not a single vessel of war, although a place ought not to be considered blockaded but when it is so invested as that no approach to it can be made without imminent hazard; that she declares even places blockaded which her united forces would be incapable of doing, such as entire coasts, and a whole empire;

6. That this unequalled abuse of right of blockade has no other object than to interrupt the communications of different nations, and to extend the commerce and industry of England upon the ruin of those of the continent;

7. That this being the evident design of England, whoever deals on the continent in English merchandize favours that design, and becomes an accomplice;

8. That this conduct in England (worthy only of the first ages of barbarism) has benefited her to the detriment of other nations;

9. That it being right to oppose to an enemy the same arms she makes use of, to combat as she does; when all ideas of justice, and every liberal sentiment (the result of civilization among men) are disregarded:

We have resolved to enforce against England the usages which she has consecrated in her maritime code.

The present decree shall be considered as the fundamental law of the empire, until England has acknowledged that the *rights of war* are the same on land as at sea, that it cannot be extended to any private property whatever, nor to persons who are not military, and until the right of blockade be restrained to fortified places actually invested by competent forces.

Article 1. The British islands are in a state of blockade.

2. All commerce and correspondence with them is prohibited. Consequently, all letters or packets written *in* England, or *to* an Englishman, *written in the English language*, shall not be dispatched from the post-offices, and shall be seized.

3. Every individual, a subject of Great Britain, of whatever rank or condition, who is found in countries occupied by our troops or those of our allies, shall be made prisoner of war.

4. Every ware-house, all merchandize or property whatever belonging to an Englishman, are declared good prize.

6. One half of the proceeds of merchandize declared to be good prize, and forfeited as in the preceding articles, shall go to indem-

nify merchants who have suffered losses by the English cruisers.

7. No vessel coming directly from England or her colonies, or having been there since the publication of this decree, shall be admitted into any port.

8. Every vessel that, by a false declaration, contravenes the foregoing disposition, shall be seized, and the ship and cargo confiscated as English property.

9. [This article states, that the councils of prizes at Paris and at Milan shall have recognizance of what may arise in the empire and in Italy under the present article.]

10. Communications of this decree shall be made to the kings of Spain, Naples, Holland, Etruria, and to our other allies, whose subjects, as well as ours, are victims of the injustice and barbarity of the English maritime code.

11. Our ministers of foreign relations, &c., are charged with the execution of the present decree.

NAPOLEON.

By the emperor, H. B. MARET, *Secretary of State.*

LETTER TO THE LORD MAYOR OF LONDON.

Foreign Office, Nov. 29, 1806.

MY LORD,

It is with the deepest concern that I inform your lordship that the city of Hamburgh was occupied by a French corps under general Mortier on the 19th instant.

The property of English merchants was immediately confiscated. On the night of the 21st, all the English merchants were arrested, but were afterwards released on their word not at any moment to absent themselves till the determination of Bonaparte respecting them should be received.

Mr. Thornton, his majesty's minister at Hamburgh, was proceeding to Kiel. Mr. Nichols, his majesty's vice-consul, was gone to Gluckstadt, in order to provide for the English ships proceeding from that port in safety. He was to go to Cuxhaven and Husura, and proper precautions had been taken for the security of the merchants remaining in Hamburgh, and their property.

HOWICK.

To the right honourable the lord mayor.

PRUSSIAN MANIFESTO.

By his Majesty the King of Prussia.

Konigsberg, Dec. 1, 1806.

The battle of the 14th of October, notwithstanding the courageous efforts of his majesty's armies, has been so unfortunate for the Prussian arms, that the road of the capital, and even to the very heart of his majesty's dominions, has been left open to the enemy; the king was, therefore, induced to offer terms for an armistice, of which he had every reason to expect a cordial acceptance on the part of the enemy, as in the midst of the battle he received a letter from the emperor Napoleon, full of friendly expression; but to this offer of the armistice, the door of acceptance was shut, unless the king consented, as the basis of a peace, to certain sacrifices, incompatible with his honour and dignity.

The king, who saw the full ex-

tent and magnitude of the misfortunes and dangers which unavoidably surrounded his faithful subjects, preferred an immediate and uncertain tranquillity to the remote and uncertain prospect of the return of the fortune of war in his favour; his majesty, therefore, immediately took the resolution of making such sacrifices, however great they might be, as were compatible with the interests of his throne, and accordingly sent the minister of state, the marquis Lucchesini, on the 18th of October, with ample diplomatic powers, to the head-quarters of the emperor and king Napoleon. The sacrifices which the king had agreed to, on receiving the first dispatches from marquis Lucchesini (to whom, in order to accelerate the business, his majesty had sent major-general Zastrow) were so adequate to the advantages which the enemy, by the fortune of a single day, had gained, that, so early as the 30th of October, they were respectfully acknowledged, and received as the basis of a treaty for peace, by the plenipotentiary, the grand marshal of the palace, Duroc; upon this basis the peace itself was to have been concluded without delay, and the king, on his own part, took all the necessary measures to provide that those conditions of peace should be punctually fulfilled, immediately after the signing of the preliminaries thereof. The emperor Napoleon, on the contrary, refused to put a stop to hostilities, and allowed his army not only to enjoy the advantages they already possessed, but to proceed in acquiring new conquests, and even all the provinces of the king, on the Oder and the Warte, destitute of garrisons, were inundated with French troops, and thus these defenceless provinces felt all the horrors of war, as well as the capital.

At the head-quarters of the emperor, even four days after the acceptance of the conditions of peace, a seditious proclamation was printed, published, and distributed, tending to produce an insurrection, or disturbances and rebellion, among the subjects of his majesty in South Prussia. Wherever the enemy's troops could find their way, the property of the king was taken possession of; the royal treasures were seized, and it was attempted to seduce the servants of his majesty from their lawful allegiance, and an oath was even tendered to them, whereby they were required to swear fealty to the enemy.

Those facts created a suspicion that the emperor was not serious in his intention of concluding a peace upon the basis already understood by the plenipotentiaries of both nations. The unceasing but ineffectual endeavours of the plenipotentiaries of the king to break off entirely the thread of communication between the two belligerent powers, proved clearly to his majesty that this suspicion was well grounded, more particularly as the positive declaration, "That the emperor, knowing the situation in which Prussia has been placed, since the unfortunate battle of the 14th, must take advantage of that situation for the conclusion of his peace with England and Russia," leaves no doubt remaining with respect to the intentions of France.

After this, the formally concluded basis for peace was entirely set aside, and instead of it an armistice was proposed, on the part of the French, at the very

moment when it was thought that the basis of a definitive peace had been settled, and each new advantage, gained in the interim by the French, now increased the severity of the demands made upon Prussia.

After having indulged themselves in so many illusory hopes, the plenipotentiaries of the king at last thought themselves justified in concluding, on the 16th of November, the armistice hereafter inserted *verbatim*, in order to put a stop to the continually increasing demands of the enemy. This document was accompanied by the official declaration of the imperial minister for foreign affairs, M. Talleyrand, prince of Benevento, the contents of which prove more clearly than any thing that had gone before, that Prussia would only flatter herself in vain, if she cherished the most distant hope of a secure and lasting peace, notwithstanding the unheard of sacrifices which the armistice imposed upon her.

But if the king himself even had indulged such a hope, it was no longer in his power to fulfil those conditions in that armistice with regard to the return of the Russian armies, because, as the French troops, during the negotiation, had advanced even to the Vistula, his majesty was not in a situation to stop the march of the Russian armies, when their own frontiers were menaced by the enemy. Thus no choice was left to the king; he was obliged to refuse his ratification of the armistice which the grand marshal Duroc brought to his head-quarters, at Osterode, on the 22d of November.

If any alternative remained, it was one that implied the accomplishing of impossibilities, viz., to invite the cabinets of St. James and St. Petersburgh to unite with his majesty, and agree upon the basis of a negotiation with the emperor Napoleon for a general peace.

This has been done, and, though there were but feeble hopes of the success of such an attempt, yet the king did not recal the marquis Lucchesini from the head-quarters of the emperor and king.

During the time that the king was thus exhausting all the resources in his power to stop the shedding of human blood, he was nevertheless busily occupied in bringing forward all the means of resistance which God has given him.

While the fortresses, provided with ample means of defence, such as those of Stettin, Custrin, Magdeburg, &c., have been delivered up to the enemy in a most scandalous manner by their respective commanders: the other fortresses of the country, particularly those on the banks of the Vistula, have been now put in the best possible state of defence, and entrusted to the command of brave and honourable officers. The rest of the marching regiments which were quartered or encamped near the Vistula and Warte shall be united with the numerous, well disciplined, and brave army brought to the assistance of the king, by his true friend and faithful ally, the emperor Alexander.

While these united troops attack the enemy, a new and numerous army, which is begun to be collected, well disciplined, and equipped for war, shall follow their fellow-soldiers to the field of glory. Above all, the king relies on the support of that people who gloriously fought the battles in the se-

ven years' war against almost all Europe, and who did not despond nor waver in their allegiance to their monarch, even when the capital and the greatest part of the kingdom were in possession of the enemy; his majesty looks with confidence to the support of that people who, upon that occasion, in the midst of unheard of perils and calamities, evinced an energy and firmness which has merited the applause of the present age, and secured them that of future generations.

At the present moment there are even greater calls upon our energies than there were at the period of the above calamities. We now struggle for all that is dear and honourable to us as a nation, or sacred to humanity. To preserve the independence and existence of the nation alone, the king took up arms: this the nation, nay, the whole world knows; and the enemy will not be able to deceive the people by the phantom of a pretended coalition, of the existence of which he cannot produce the least evidence.

In her former struggles in the seven years' war, Prussia stood alone, or at least without any material assistance from any other power. She then stood up against the first powers in Europe. In the present struggle she can reckon upon the assistance of the powerful and magnanimous Alexander, who with his whole strength stands forward to the preservation of Prussia. Prussia, in this great struggle, has only one interest in common with Russia; both will stand and fall together. With such an intimate union of both powers in such a holy struggle against an enemy whose success has raised him to such a giddy height, that he knows no limits to his career, the issue of the struggle cannot long remain doubtful.

Perseverance in danger, according to the glorious example of our forefathers, can and will lead us on to victory.

PROCLAMATION BY THE KING OF PRUSSIA, CONCERNING THE ABOLISHING SEVERAL ABUSES IN THE ARMIES.

In consequence of the unfortunate and almost total dissolution of several corps of the army, sent into the field against the French, it has been impossible for his Prussian majesty, on account of a total want of authentic information, to distinguish truth from falsehood, rumours from facts, to reward merit, or to inflict punishment. His majesty, therefore, must postpone drawing any conclusions until that period, when his majesty shall be enabled to do so with more certainty and precision. His majesty is far from the idea of ascribing to his brave armies all the calamities and misfortunes which he himself and his dominions have experienced. It is, on the contrary, very satisfactory to his majesty, that many of his soldiers, from the highest to the lowest rank, have distinguished themselves by a steady courage, continued perseverance, and a true sense of honour. But, unfortunately, instances have occurred (proved by facts, that speak for themselves) of such a nature as not to be passed over any longer in silence; on the contrary, they ought most severely and most publicly to be animadverted on, as an example for the future.

Amongst those whose conduct is most highly reprehensible are:

1. All those officers who have more or less participated in the unheard of conduct of the surrender to the enemy of the fortresses of Stettin, Custrin, Spandau, and Magdeburg.

2. All those officers who, not being present at the capitulation of their respective corps, nevertheless offered themselves voluntarily to surrender, as belonging to such corps, nay, even persuaded their comrades and their subalterns to take a similar scandalous resolution.

3. Lastly, all those who, without having received any furlough, or having been made prisoners, have absented themselves from the armies, and went either home or elsewhere, &c.

In consequence of which, his majesty has, for the present, dismissed his service with disgrace, for ever, the major and commander at Erfurt, Von Pruschenck, because, though the city of Erfurt surrendered, there was no necessity to deliver up the forts of Petersburgh and Cirianburgh, if the commandant had taken the necessary precautions. At Stettin, the lieutenant-general and governor, Von Romberg, is cashiered, as well as the major-general Von Knoblesdorff. Major-general Von Rauch, as commander in second, is dismissed with disgrace and for ever.

The major and fort engineer of Stettin, Von Harenberg, is broke.

In Custrin, the colonel and commander, Von Inglersleben, is condemned to be shot.

In Spandau, the major and commander, Von Benkendorff, is dismissed with disgrace.

In Magdeburg, the general of infantry, Von Kleist, and the commander, colonel du Trocsell, are dismissed with disgrace.

All the remaining generals who were at Magdeburg at the time, and who, in the council of war, voted for the surrender of the fortress, are likewise dismissed with disgrace; as also all those officers who have signed any of the above-mentioned capitulations.

2. All the officers of the corps of Hohenlohe, who belonged to it at the affairs of Pasenwalk and Prestzlow, who arrived at Stettin before the capitulation of that place, and who joined those that were included in that capitulation, are also dismissed the service for ever. All officers, who, previous to the capitulation concluded at Anclam, had passed that town, but returned in order to surrender themselves prisoners, are also dismissed the service.

3. All officers who, during the retreat of their corps, left them without having a furlough, or without having been taken prisoners, and shall have returned home or elsewhere; and all officers not belonging to any corps that was obliged to capitulate, and who have gone over to the enemy in order to get passports, that they might return without molestation, are all dismissed the service for ever.

Further, his majesty reserves to himself, to bring to account all those officers, high and low, particularly those in the commissary department, whose actions still remain doubtful, or who in the eyes of the army have shown themselves unworthy of the trust reposed in them; and, if upon the future investigation of their conduct, the above stated facts are

found to be more criminal than at present appears, then, and in that case, the punishment will be proportionably severe; but in order to prevent future dereliction from duty, his majesty has thought proper to publish the following ordinances:

1. All governors and commandants, who, in future, from fear of a bombardment, or under the pretext of a want of the necessary requisites for supporting a siege, or under any groundless pretence whatever, be it what it may, shall neglect, or refuse to defend with whatever means they possess, the fortress entrusted to their charge, shall be shot without any mercy.

Every commander or governor of a fortress who shall consent to any secret articles [in the capitulation which the enemy may force them to conclude] for their own benefit or that of their subalterns, as has been the case at Magdeburg, shall be cashiered.

2. Every regiment which does not obey the orders received to attack, or without orders leaves the field of battle, after it has been made known to his majesty, shall be cashiered and drafted into other regiments.

3. Every officer who in future shall be guilty of the misdemeanors first above described in Nos. 2 and 3, or shall leave the field of battle without being wounded, shall be cashiered with infamy: each soldier who in running away throws away his arms, shall be immediately shot.

4. Every officer who shall meet with any dispersed soldiers shall rally them, and lead them to the first corps, or to another place of rendezvous. If he does not perform this duty he shall be accountable for his conduct.

5. The regimental and company surgeons are to be as near their respective corps on the day of battle as possible, and they must be provided with all the requisites of their profession, under pain of being dismissed with disgrace.

6. The ammunition waggons of each corps ought always to be attended by a staff officer or captain, to preserve regularity in the march. Those officers commanded to attend this duty shall be cashiered in case of neglecting the same.

Whoever wantonly fires a musket to create a false alarm, shall be immediately shot.

Any waggon driver who may unyoke his horses from his waggon, in order to run away with them shall be shot. But as it is absolutely necessary to produce a serious alteration in the commissary department of the army, the plan of reform to be adopted shall be communicated as soon as possible to the different corps.

7. On any unforeseen occurrences, for example, on extraordinary forced marches, retreats, &c., every commanding officer of a corps shall be entitled to make a requisition upon the inhabitants for the necessary quantity of provisions and forage for men and horses, under his command, giving his receipt for the same; but if he exceeds the necessary quantity in his requisition, he shall be shot.

8. The officers of the general staff, with their adjutants, are to take charge of conducting the several corps, and are never to leave their respective commands. The pioneers are to be at the head of each column, that they may be ready to repair the roads or to cut out new communications.

The officers of the general staff must take care of every thing that can facilitate or accelerate the march of their respective corps. If the army is to form before the enemy, those officers must reconnoitre and discover the best ways of retreat, as also carefully mark out the ground.

9. As long as the war continues, the subalterns as well as the privates, if they distinguish themselves for courage and presence of mind, shall be equally entitled to promotion as any prince or nobleman in the Prussian dominions. He alone who has committed crimes shall be excluded from being an officer.

10. The widows of every soldier who has distinguished himself, and dies in the field of battle, shall receive a pension proportionate to the rank of her husband.

11. It is hardly necessary to say that every act of insubordination is severely punishable. Every one is already well acquainted with the regulations of the army on this subject. Yet as experience has lately shown the contrary on several occasions, it is now brought to the serious recollection of the army, that every one may be completely aware of the punishment attending insubordination.

12. Extortion of money from, or plundering and ill usage of the inhabitants, and such like outrageous conduct, shall be punished with death.

13. All Prussian subjects who are found serving the enemy, and taken with arms in their hands, shall be shot without mercy.

This proclamation, which it is intended shall be made known to every individual in the army, shall not only be read at the head of every regiment, but every individual shall take a copy thereof, for the better regulation of his conduct.

An abstract shall be made of this proclamation, so far as regards the subalterns, privates, and waggon-drivers, which shall be read to them in their native language; and the reading thereof shall be repeated every week or fourteen days; as also the same measures shall be taken with our former proclamation respecting the distribution of medals of merit.

FREDERICK WILLIAM.

Ortelsburg, Dec. 1, 1806.

ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE OF GERMANY, BY THE COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE IMPERIAL RUSSIAN ARMY.

By a long series of the most unfortunate events, your country has become a prey to the most cruel and insolent of foes. The manifold sufferings to which you have been subjected are known to the emperor my most gracious sovereign; and his majesty is so much the more disposed to take the warmest interest therein, as he himself has sprung from German blood; and, mindful of the intimate ties which exist between his imperial house and many of the German princes, he has never ceased to entertain, with regard to the German nation, all that esteem to which a people, so numerous, enlightened, and virtuous are justly entitled. With this sentiment of the warmest interest in the fate of Germany, are naturally and inseparably conjoined his majesty's wishes to deliver

this empire from its oppressors, and restore it to its just freedom and independence. His majesty will think no exertion too laborious to attain this great object.

Inhabitants of Germany! the whole Russian army fights for your interests! Under these circumstances so favourable, shall you alone remain inactive? Shall you be so blinded, as in the present state of things to do nothing for yourselves?

The enemy is at a great distance from his frontiers, in territories, and at a season of the year, which not only do not afford him sufficient means of supply, but also impede all his operations. Will you voluntarily contribute to his relief? Will you act against your own interests? Forget not that you have all possible aid to expect from the brave army entrusted to my command. I trust that I shall victoriously drive back the common enemy of Europe, and convince him that there still remains a people, who, faithful to their country and their monarch, have both the inclination and the power to resist the imposition of his iron yoke. But, however probable this success may be, his majesty will still regard it as incomplete, so long as the foe shall not be driven back beyond his natural boundaries; and as this is the only means of restoring the independence of your country, and obtaining a general peace upon secure foundations, his imperial majesty relies with the fullest confidence, that at this final decisive crisis, the inhabitants of Germany will not only lend no kind of support to the common foe, but, on the contrary, that they will, by a general resistance, render his further stay in Germany impracticable, and throw every possible difficulty in the way of his retreat towards his own frontiers. By this intimate union of the whole Russian force with all the means of the German empire, the common object may be attained, and peace, so anxiously desired, be once more restored to suffering Europe.

Take courage then, brave and virtuous Germans. Reflect on the immortal renown of your ancestors, who, in former ages, maintained their independence with the most signal bravery. Unite yourselves under the colours of such of your princes, in whom the unfortunate events of our times have not yet extinguished a sense of honour, and of their own dignity. To this grand and noble purpose of delivering your country from a foreign yoke, sacrifice every private quarrel, every consideration of internal discord, and then shall you compose a formidable whole, capable not only of disputing every inch of ground with the common enemy, but also of ultimately vanquishing and repelling him for ever within his natural frontier.

In your efforts to attain so glorious an object, you may rely with the fullest confidence on the powerful and continued assistance of the emperor, my most gracious sovereign. The universally acknowledged principles of his imperial majesty afford you a guarantee, that not only will his majesty not abandon you in the present struggle, but that on the happy termination thereof, he will particularly direct his attention to the restoration of your country, which for a succession of centuries rendered your forefathers the happiest people on the face of the earth,

and which could only be destroyed by the domineering ambition of an enemy, who makes no scruple of treading under foot the most sacred treaties.

Given at the imperial Russian head quarters.

VON BENINGSEN,
General of Cavalry, Military Governor of Lithuania, &c.

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The following Address has been circulated at the out-posts of the French army:

Soldiers of France! formerly, when foreign armies meditated the conquest of your country, and came even in the bosom of your land to attack you, you repelled them with a valour and perseverance which the whole world admired. The report of your brilliant exploits reached even us. Your courage, your loyalty, was known to us, and the soldiers of France became the objects of our esteem. But it is no longer your country which demands your efforts. A war foreign to your interests tears you from your families, your friends, your home. A tyrant whose insatiable ambition knows no bounds, drags you into distant climates, and sheds the blood of Frenchmen, that he may bestow crowns on his relations. He forces you to combat against people who are ready to offer you pledges of their ancient affection, but who will shed the last drop of their blood in the sacred cause of their country.

BENINGSEN.

THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT TO THE SENATE.

On Monday the 2d of December, at twelve o'clock, in execution of the orders of his majesty the emperor and king, his serene highness the prince archchancellor of the empire, repaired to the senate. His highness was in his ceremonial dress; he was received in the usual forms, and, having seated himself, said:

GENTLEMEN,

At the moment when the reins of government were put, by the gratitude of the nation, into the hands of his imperial and royal majesty, there were established between him and you habitual confidential reports, and a communication of thoughts, which have made you participate in the grand designs conceived and executed for the good of this empire.

Thus, you were made early acquainted that the first wishes of the emperor were for peace, and that this generous sentiment never cooled.

Before he appeared on the field of battle, he offered it to his enemies.

After victory, his triumphant hand always presented it to them.

He hoped that particular and successive treaties, reconciling, one after the other, all interests, appeasing by degrees all resentments, would at length bring on that general pacification, so much wished for by European nations, and so necessary to their felicity.

His majesty's expectation was disappointed.

Europe, drawn towards repose by the victories of France, was unceasingly called back to arms by the influence of Great Britain, and by the ambitious pretensions of Russia.

Coalitions brought to the ground gave birth to new coalitions.

The moderation of the vanquisher encouraged the vanquished.

The greatest efforts of military genius, together with the exploits of an army which counts as nothing distances, seasons, climates, and the number of its enemies, have produced, hitherto, only glorious truces, of which peace has not been the fruit.

England got possession of the trade of the world: the productions of industry in both hemispheres were to be swallowed up in that island.

However, Russia, so long unknown in the disputes of Europe, at this day foments the disorders of the west, at the same time that she menaces the east with her vast dominion.

The Ottoman empire is disturbed: vexations are aggravated against it: the rights of its sovereignty are rendered in a manner uncertain.

In such conjunctures, in the midst of these machinations and plots, his majesty has been obliged to quit a road wherein peace was not to be found, which alone the vanquished sought for.

This peace must henceforth be made desirable to those who provoke war.

War must be made fatal to those who let themselves be drawn into it.

Cabinets must be reduced to the happy impotency of being again deceived.

Princes, so often vanquished, must at length be taught that clemency has its bounds, and that the sceptre which they abuse may break in their hands.

Hence, gentlemen, a new plan of conduct, and accessary measures proper for securing its success.

The first and most important of all consists in supporting the power of the nation, by the continuity of the same means, and by the developement of its strength.

A nation, the infringer of all the laws of civilization, must afterwards be deprived of all relations with civilized nations.

His majesty must retain his conquests, and must remove from them the promoters of all discord, until the moment when England will have acknowledged the principles, which, among polished nations, temper the disasters inseparable from their dissentions; until the period when just restitutions will have acquitted our obligations towards our faithful allies; in fine, until a general peace, which shall establish the repose of Europe, and promise to all nations the entire developement of their industry.

You appreciate, gentlemen, all that is great and glorious in such a design. Its speedy advantages, those it presents for the future do not escape your wisdom; you find in it an ample compensation for the perseverance and momentary sacrifices which it must be the reward of.

The guarantees of its execution will be, for his majesty the love of his people, the fidelity so often

experienced of the senate, the courage of the armies; but, above all, that genius the success of which has never belied its inspiration, and that ardour which knows no obstacles, when the glory of France and the happiness of humanity are in question.

His serene highness having concluded his speech, the senator Porcher, one of the secretaries, ascended the tribune and read the following papers:

Extract from the Minutes of the Secretary of State's Office, at the Palace of Berlin, November 21, 1806.

Napoleon, emperor of the French and king of Italy,

We have decreed and do decree what follows:

The senate shall assemble on the 2d of the month of December next, in the usual place of its sittings, under the presidency of our cousin the arch-chancellor of the empire.

NAPOLEON.

By the emperor,
The Minister Secretary of State,
H. B. MARET.

Message from his Majesty the Emperor and King to the Senate.

SENATORS,

We wish, in the circumstances in which the general affairs of Europe now are in, to make known to you and the nation the principles which we have adopted as the rule of our policy.

Our extreme moderation, after each of our first wars, has been the cause of the one which has succeeded them. It is thus we have had to struggle against a fourth coalition nine months after the third had been dissolved, nine months after those shining victories which providence had granted us, and which ought to have secured a long repose to the continent.

But a great many cabinets of Europe are sooner or later influenced by England; and without a solid peace with that power our people will be unable to enjoy the benefits which are the first aim of our labours, the only object of our life. Thus, notwithstanding our triumphant situation, we have been stopped in our late negotiations with England, neither by the arrogance of her language, nor by the sacrifices which she wished to impose upon us. The island of Malta, to which was attached in a manner the honour of this war, and which, retained by England in contempt of treaties, was the principal cause of it, we had ceded; we had consented that, to the possession of Ceylon and the empire of the Mysore, England should add that of the Cape of Good Hope.

But all our efforts must have miscarried when the councils of our enemies ceased to be animated with the noble ambition of reconciling the good of the world with the present prosperity of their own country, and no prosperity can be lasting for England, as long as it is founded upon an exaggerated and unjust policy, which would strip sixty millions of inhabitants, their neighbours, rich and brave, of all trade and all navigation.

Immediately after the death of the principal minister of England, it was easy for us to perceive, that the continuation of the negotiations had no longer any other object but

to cover the plots of this fourth coalition, stifled in its birth.

In this new position, we have adopted for the invariable principle of our conduct, to evacuate neither Berlin nor Warsaw, nor the provinces which the force of arms has made to fall into our hands before the general peace be concluded; the Spanish, Dutch, and French colonies restored; before the foundation of the Ottoman power be strengthened, and the absolute independence of that vast empire, the first interests of our people, irrevocably consecrated

We have put the British islands in a state of blockade, and have ordered against them dispositions repugnant to our heart. It has been painful to us to make the interests of private persons depend upon the disputes of kings, and to return, after so many years of civilization, to the principles which characterize the barbarity of the first ages of nations. But we have been constrained, for the good of our people and of our allies, to oppose to the common enemy the same arms he made use of against us. These determinations, commanded by a just sentiment of reciprocity, have been inspired neither by passion nor by hatred. What we offered, after having dissipated the three coalitions which had contributed so much to the glory of our people, we still offer at this day, when our arms have obtained new triumphs.

We are ready to make peace with England; we are ready to make it with Russia, with Prussia; but it can only be concluded upon such bases as that it may not permit any power whatever to arrogate to herself any right of supremacy over us, that it shall restore the colonies to their mother country, and that it shall secure to our trade and industry the prosperity which they ought to attain.

And if the whole of these dispositions removes for some time yet the re-establishment of general peace, however short this delay may be, it will appear long to our heart. But we are certain that our people will appreciate the wisdom of our political motives, that they will judge with us that a partial peace is only a truce which makes us lose all our acquired advantages to give rise to a new war, and that, in fine, it is only in a general peace that France can find happiness.

We are in one of those important moments for the destiny of nations; and the French people will show themselves worthy of the one which awaits them. The senatus consultum which we have ordered to be proposed to you, and which will place at our disposal, in the first days of the year, the conscription of 1807, which, in ordinary circumstances, should only be raised in September, will be executed with eagerness by the fathers as well as by the children. And at what finer moment could we call the young Frenchmen to arms? They will have to cross, for the purpose of repairing to their colours, the capitals of our enemies, and the fields of battle rendered illustrious by the victories of their elder brothers.

Given at Berlin, the 21st November, 1806.

NAPOLEON.

By the emperor,
The Minister Secretary of State,
H. B. MARET.

Report of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, to his Majesty the Emperor and King.

SIRE,

A fourth coalition was formed. In less than a month it has been confounded. In less than a month Prussia has seen her army, her strong places, her capital, and her provinces fallen into the power of your majesty, and now she implores for peace.

In the preceding coalitions, every enemy of France, as soon as she was vanquished, also sued for and obtained peace. It was hoped that particular and successive treaties of peace would lead to a general one, at once honourable and secure. Three times has this hope been disappointed; three times has experience proved that, in following the same system of moderation and generosity, France would be constantly deceived.—Each coalition, upon being destroyed, engendered a new one, and France was menaced with an eternal war.

The French empire has attained a degree of power and greatness which your majesty did not seek. Attacked on all sides with unexampled fury, and placed in the alternative of dying or conquering, France has fought only for her safety, and, victorious, she has made use of victory only to display her moderation. She has not destroyed those who wished to destroy her; she had made immense conquests, she has kept only a small number of them; she would have kept still less of them, if the blind passions which glowed around her had not put her under the necessity of aggrandizing herself for her own preservation. Now that she is attacked for the fourth time with the same spirit of hatred, and with the same views of destruction, your majesty has no other aim but to recover what is indispensable to the prosperity of your people. But it is an aim which you cannot attain but by availing yourself of all the greatness of your advantages, and by reserving your conquests as objects of compensation in the arrangements of the general peace.

Two powers, enemies of the repose of Europe, have united for the purpose of perpetuating the discord of war. The objects of their ambition are different, but the same hatred animates them against France, because they know that France cannot cease opposing the accomplishment of their pernicious designs. Unceasingly occupied in seeking and exciting new enemies against her, they employ for this purpose every kind of artifice and intrigue, menaces, caresses, corruption, calumny; and when they aspire to invade, oppose, and enslave every thing, it is France they accuse of pretending to it.

England pretends to the exclusive navigation of the sea. She arrogates to herself the monopoly of all trade and all industry, and, whenever the irresistible force of events has obliged France to intervene in the concerns of the petty states, her neighbours, and to intervene in them for their own repose, England has given the signal of accusations and complaints. She that first sounded the alarm, and because a few towns or a few countries, submitted for centuries past to the influence of France, were again submitted to it, she represented France as menacing the independence of the great states. Was it upon petty states

which were submitted for a century past to her influence, and in a manner drawn into the sphere of her activity? Was it not, on the contrary, upon states considered at all times as the principal ones in Europe, that England exercised her violations, when the powers of the north, who had united for the purpose of defending the eternal principles of neutrality, were forced to subscribe to her monstrous pretensions, and to sacrifice, with their own interests, the dearest interest of France? At that time the independence of nations was not only menaced, it was attacked, violated, and, as far as depended on England, annihilated. Of what use was it that England had been obliged to acknowledge, by the convention of Petersburgh, a few principles, which neither her seduction nor her menaces had been able to get abandoned? Immediately after, she openly trampled on them, or eluded them, by abusing, in a manner at once the most tyrannical and the most senseless, the right of blockade. This right cannot, in reason and according to treaties, be applied to any other but places invested and in danger of being taken. She pretended, however, to extend it to harbours, to the mouths of rivers, to whole coasts, and, in fine, to a whole empire. Certainly, France never was invested and in danger of being taken by England, and all France has been declared in a state of blockade. By acting in this manner, does not England loudly proclaim that she acknowledges no law? that treaties are nothing to her, and that she admits of no other right but that of force? and that she deems every thing legitimate which she can do with impunity?

The government of Russia, when it ought to be solely taken up with the care of vivifying its immense states, and of expiating, by the benefits of a wise legislation, and a paternal administration, the crime which in one day may reduce from the rank of independent nations an ancient, numerous, and illustrious nation, worthy of a better fate, covets and menaces to swallow up the vast empire of the Ottomans. The same manœuvres which it made use of against Poland it now employs against Turkey. It blows up in her provinces the spirit of sedition and revolt. It excites, arms, and supports the Servians against the porte. It renews, upon Moravia, the attempts it had made, but fruitlessly, in 1788. Wallachia and Moldavia were governed by two unfaithful and traitorous chiefs; the porte had declared them such by a firman, and had deposed them. Russia, not content with giving them an asylum, marched troops towards the Dniester, and, menacing the porte to declare war against it, she required their being reinstated. The porte had the grief of seeing itself constrained to reinstate its declared enemies, and to depose the men of its own chusing.

Thus its independence has been violated by an attempt which at once strikes at the dignity of all thrones. The moment she has no more the choice of her governors, she is no longer a sovereign; she is a vassal, or rather Wallachia and Moldavia no longer belong to her but in name; and these two great and rich provinces, governed by men sold to Russia, are become for the latter a real conquest.

With such enemies, whose hatred your majesty's moderation

has been unable to disarm, and who, notwithstanding your victories, still march to their object, listening only to their passions, and respecting no right, your majesty is not free to follow the emotions of your generosity. The very inclination which leads you to wish for peace, makes it a law for you to relinquish none of your conquests before the entire and absolute independence of the Ottoman empire, an independence which is the first interest of France, be acknowledged and guaranteed, before the Spanish, Dutch, and French colonies, the loss of which has been solely occasioned by the diversion effected by the four coalitions, be restored, and a general code be adopted, conformably to the dignity of all crowns, and capable of securing the rights of all nations on the high seas.

The justice and necessity of this determination will be universally felt; it will be a benefit for your majesty's allies, and for all commercial towns of your empire, which have been despoiled only by favour of these same wars, the events of which have put so many vast states in the power of your majesty. In any other system, the interests of these allies and of so many populous cities would be abandoned, the fruits of the most astonishing victories would be lost, and France, in the midst of unheard of triumphs, after so many exploits which have aggrandized and covered her with glory, would have no prospect of repose; she would not perceive the period when she might lay down her arms, betake herself to the peaceful occupations of industry and commerce, to which nature calls her, and make upon another theatre less shining, but sweeter, conquests, which she should not have bought by the effusion of blood that is so dear to her, and which, equalling her happiness to her glory, would cost humanity no tears.

C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Berlin, Nov. 15, 1806.

Reports of the Ministers for Foreign Relations to his Majesty the Emperor and King.

SIRE,

Three centuries of civilization have bestowed on Europe a right of persons which, according to the expression of an illustrious writer, human nature cannot sufficiently acknowledge.

This right is founded on the principle, that nations ought to do to themselves, in peace the greatest benefit, and, in war, the least evil possible.

Conformably to the maxim, that war is not a relation between one man and another, but a relation between one state and another, in which individuals are enemies accidentally, not as men, not even as members or subjects of the state, but merely as its defenders, the rights of persons do not allow that the right of war, and the right of conquest which is derived from it, should extend to peaceable and unarmed citizens, to habitations and private property, to commercial merchandize, to warehouses which contain them, to the waggons which transport them, and to the unarmed vessels which convey them along rivers and over seas, in short, to the persons and property of private individuals.

This right which has arisen out of civilization has favoured its

progress. It is to it that Europe has been indebted for the maintenance and growth of her prosperity, even in the midst of the frequent wars which have divided her.

England alone has preserved or resumed the usages of barbarous times. It is by her refusal to renounce privateering that this unjust and cruel practice has been maintained in spite of France, who, in time of peace, solely moved by ideas of justice and humanity, had proposed to abolish it.

France has done every thing to mitigate at least an evil which she could not prevent. England, on the contrary, has done every thing to aggravate it.

Not contented with attacking merchantmen, and treating the crews of unarmed vessels as prisoners of war, she has regarded as an enemy every one belonging to the enemy's state, and has also made prisoners of war the merchants and commercial agents who were on their voyage to transact their business.

But it was not sufficient for her views thus to invade private property, to strip and oppress innocent and peaceable private persons. Having remained for a long time behind hand with the nations of the continent who preceded her in the road of civilization, and having received all the benefits of it, she conceived the rash project of becoming the sole possessor, and thus depriving every one else of them. It is her wish that there should be on earth no other industry but her own, and no other trade but what she carries on herself. She has perceived that, in order to succeed, it was not enough for her to disturb, but that she ought still to exert herself to the utmost to produce a total interruption in the communications between nations. It is with this view that, under the name of right of blockade, she has invented and brought into practice the most monstrous theory.

Conformably to reason and the usage of all polished nations, the right of blockade is only applicable to fortresses.

England has endeavoured to extend it to unfortified places of commerce, to havens, and to the mouths of rivers.

A place is only blockaded when it is invested in such a manner that no attempt can be made to approach it without being exposed to an imminent danger.

England has declared those places blockaded before which she had not a single ship of war.

She has done more, for she has declared in a state of blockade places which all her assembled forces were incapable of blockading, immense coasts and a vast empire.

Afterwards, drawing from a chimerical right and from a supposed fact the consequence that she might justly make her prey, and carrying it into effect, of every thing going to the places laid under interdiction by a simple declaration of the British admiralty, and of every thing arriving therefrom, she has alarmed neutral navigators, and driven them to a distance from ports whither their interest attracted them, and which the law of nations authorized them to frequent.

Thus it is that she has turned to her profit and to the detriment of Europe, but more particularly of France, the audacity with which she mocks at all rights, and insults even reason itself.

Against a power which forgets to such a pitch all ideas of justice and all humane sentiments, what can be done, but to forget them for an instant one's-self, in order to constrain her to violate them no longer? The right of natural defence allows of the opposing an enemy with the arms he makes use of, and to cause, if I may so express myself, to re-act against him his own furies and folly.—Moreover, when the principles of civilization are attacked by unexampled enterprizes, and that Europe is threatened to preserve and avenge, it is not only a right, but it is also a duty for that power which alone has the means of doing so.

Since England has dared to declare that the whole of France should be in a state of blockade, let France declare, in her turn, that the British islands are blockaded.

Since England looks on every Frenchman as an enemy, let every Englishman or English subject, found in the countries occupied by the French armies, be made a prisoner of war.

Since England aims her blows at the private property of peaceable merchants, let the property of every Englishman and subject of England, of whatever nature soever, be confiscated.

Since England has resolved on annihilating all industry on the continent, whoever carries on a trade in English merchandize favours her designs to the utmost of his power, and becomes her accomplice. Let all trade in English merchandize be declared illegal; and let all the produce of the English manufactories or colonies found in the places occupied by the French troops be confiscated.

Since England is resolved on interrupting navigation and all maritime commerce, let no vessel coming from the British islands or colonies be received either into the ports of France or into those of the countries occupied by the French army, and let every vessel which shall attempt to sail from those ports to England be seized and confiscated.

Your majesty, I know, will, with regret, adopt such measures, and it is with regret that I propose them; but the situation of Europe renders them necessary, and besides, as soon as England will admit the rights of persons, such as are universally followed by polished nations, as soon as she will acknowledge that the right of war is one and the same on land as on sea, that this right and that of conquest cannot extend either to private property, or to unarmed and peaceable individuals, and that the right of blockade ought to be restrained to fortresses really invested, your majesty will cause a stop to be put to these rigorous, but not unjust measures; for justice between nations is only exact reciprocity.

C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Berlin, Nov. 20, 1806.

PROCLAMATION BY THE KING OF PRUSSIA, TO THE INHABITANTS OF SILESIA.

Brave inhabitants of Silesia,

Among the mournful events which have taken place during the course of the present war, there is nothing that has so much filled with grief the heart of his majesty, as to see a considerable

part of his provinces and faithful subjects oppressed by the weight of sufferings, which must be the inevitable consequence of a war, in which the enemy, by his manner of making war, unusual in our time, entirely exhausts the country through which he passes, with forced requisitions of every kind, and by the large bodies of marauders who swarm round his disciplined armies, and who, incapable of sparing, treat the armed warrior and the unhappy peaceable inhabitant with the same cruelty, and every where leave behind them traces of the grossest barbarity, deserts, and ashes; even where, through fear of violence, the unarmed inhabitants have shown the greatest submission in the reception of those destroying hordes.

His majesty perceives that his faithful Silesian provinces are now threatened with the same wretched fate.

It sensibly grieves his majesty that he is prevented by the situation of affairs, which renders his presence necessary at other points, from hastening in person to the aid of his faithful Silesians, who have at all times, and under all circumstances, rewarded the paternal care of their monarch for the welfare and prosperity of their country, by the most unshaken attachment to the house of Prussia.

The enemy boasts, favoured by fortune, so liable to change, and not less favoured by the treachery of base traitors, that he has already annihilated the whole force of the Prussian monarchy.

But he knows not that his majesty is at this moment at the head of a formidable army, which burns with eagerness to engage the oppressors of the country.

He knows not, or appears not to wish to know, that the monarch of Prussia finds himself surrounded by a guard, which no force, no misfortunes, no talisman can subdue, the unalterable love of his people.

He knows not that every day thousands of volunteers offer themselves, with arms in their hands, to set bounds to his progress, and that the Silesians display no less activity and energy in defence of their king and country, than to defend their property from unexampled rapacity.

He flatters himself with the doubts he is anxious to disseminate of the promised aid of Russia.

But he deceives himself in his hopes; the most sacred and inviolate fulfilment of all treaties entered into, is one of the principal traits in the character of the noble-minded sovereign of all the Russias.

Already two formidable Russian armies have arrived near the banks of the Vistula, while a third, much more numerous, is advancing by rapid marches.

Already legions of patriots, voluntarily armed, and used to battle, are prepared to join the armies in the field.

His majesty under these circumstances, depends on the attachment of his Silesian states and subjects, who have at all times, both by word and deed, given the most manifest proofs of their unshaken fidelity; and he believes that, by the appointment, *ad interim*, of one of the most distinguished of them, his excellency the prince of Anhalt Pless,

to be governor-general of Silesia, he gives them a proof of his confidence and good-will. Conducted by this prince, who has gloriously signalized himself in the course of the war, the states, and all classes of the inhabitants of Silesia will certainly exert themselves to contribute all in their power, in conjunction with the forces which his majesty will send to their assistance, to defend their country, and their own province in particular.

Invested with full power by his majesty, I therefore hereby call on all and each of the inhabitants of the Silesian provinces, to bear cheerfully the sacrifices and burthens which probably may be necessary for the attainment of this great object, and the rather as they not only can bear no proportion to the enormous sacrifices to which they must be subjected should the enemy succeed in his attempt to conquer Silesia, but as in due time they will be rewarded by his majesty, and as far as possible made good.

Given at Breslaw the 3d of December, 1806.

COUNT VON GOTZEN.

TREATY OF PEACE, BETWEEN HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH, KING OF ITALY, AND HIS SERENE HIGHNESS THE ELECTOR OF SAXONY.

His majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, protector of the confederation of the Rhine, and his serene highness the elector of Saxony, anxious to provide for the final re-establishment of peace between their states, have named for their respective plenipotentiaries, to wit, his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, the general of division Michel Duroc, grand marshal of the palace, &c., and his serene electoral highness the elector of Saxony, count Charles De Boze, his principal chamberlain, &c., who, after having exchanged their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

I. From the day of the signing of the treaty, there shall be peace and perfect friendship between the emperor of the French, king of Italy, and protector of the confederation of the Rhine, on the one part, and his serene electoral highness the elector of Saxony, on the other.

II. His electoral highness accedes to the treaty of confederation and alliance concluded at Paris on the 12th of July, in the present year; and by such accession he succeeds to all the privileges and obligations of the alliance, in the same way as if he were a principal contracting party to the said treaty.

III. His electoral highness will assume the title of king, and take his place in the college in the rank of kings, according to the order of his introduction.

IV. He cannot, without the previous consent of the confederation of the Rhine, in any case or for any cause whatever, allow a passage through the kingdom of Saxony to any army, or corps, or detachment of troops, appertaining to a power not a party to the said confederation.

V. The laws and ordinances which define the several rites of the various forms of worship established in Germany having been abolished by the effect of the

dissolution of the ancient Germanic body, and moreover not being compatible with the principle upon which the confederation has been formed, the exercise of the catholic worship shall, throughout the whole kingdom of Saxony, be fully assimulated to the exercise of the Lutheran form of worship, and the followers of the two religions shall without restriction enjoy the same civil and political rights. This object is a particular condition with his majesty the emperor and king.

VI. His majesty the emperor of the French undertakes, that by the future treaty of peace with Prussia, the Cothusser, Creis, or circle of Cothus, shall be ceded to his majesty the king of Saxony.

VII. His majesty the king of Saxony cedes to such prince as shall be named by his majesty the emperor of the French, and in that part of Thuringia situated between the principalities of Eichfeld and Erfurt, a territory equal in revenue and population to the circle of Cothus, which territory, serving as a point of union between the said prince, in full and entire sovereignty. The limits of this territory shall be fixed by commissaries appointed for that purpose, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications.

VIII. The contingent of the kingdom of Saxony, in case of war, shall consist in the whole of 20,000 men.

IX. During the present campaign, considering what has happened, the contingent of the kingdom of Saxony shall be 1500 cavalry, 4200 infantry, 300 artillery, and 12 pieces of cannon.

X. No contributions shall be levied after the signing of the present treaty.

XI. The present treaty shall be ratified, at and the ratification exchanged Dresden, in the course of eight days.

Done at Posen, December 11, 1806.

DUROC.
CHARLES,
Count De Boze.

THE KING'S MESSAGE TO THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

December 12, 1806.

At four o'clock, the lord chancellor, the archbishop of Canterbury, lords Winchelsea and Spencer took their seats in their robes, as his majesty's commissioners, and the commons attending at the bar, the lord chancellor delivered, in his majesty's name, the following speech, to both houses of parliament:

My lords and gentlemen,

His majesty has commanded us to assure you, that, in the difficult and arduous circumstances under which you are now assembled, it is a great satisfaction to him to recur to the firmness and wisdom of his parliament, after so recent an opportunity of collecting the sense of his people.

His majesty has ordered the papers which have been exchanged in the course of the late negotiations with France to be laid before you. His majesty has employed every effort for the restoration of general tranquillity, on terms consistent with the interest and honour of his people, and with that inviolable good faith towards his allies, by which the

conduct of this country has always been distinguished.

The ambition and injustice of the enemy disappointed these endeavours, and in the same moment kindled a fresh war in Europe, the progress of which has been attended with the most calamitous events.

After witnessing the subversion of the ancient constitution of Germany, and the subjugation of a large proportion of its most considerable states, Prussia found herself still more nearly threatened by that danger, which she had vainly hoped to avert by so many sacrifices. She was therefore at length compelled to adopt the resolution of openly resisting this unremitted system of aggrandizement and conquest. But neither this determination, nor the succeeding measures, were previously concerted with his majesty; nor had any disposition been shown to offer any adequate satisfaction for those aggressions which had placed the two countries in a state of mutual hostility.

Yet in this situation his majesty did not hesitate to adopt, without delay, such measures as were best calculated to unite their councils and interests against the common enemy. The rapid course of the calamities which ensued opposed insurmountable difficulties to the execution of this purpose.

In the midst of these disastrous events, and under the most trying circumstances, the good faith of his majesty's allies has remained unshaken. The conduct of the king of Sweden has been distinguished by the most honourable firmness. Between his majesty and the emperor of Russia the happiest union subsists; it has been cemented by reciprocal proofs of good faith and confidence; and his majesty doubts not that you will participate in his anxiety to cultivate and confirm any alliance which affords the only remaining hope of safety for the continent of Europe.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

His majesty looks with confidence to your assistance, in those exertions which the honour and independence of our country demand. The necessity of adding to the public burthens will be painful to your feelings, and is deeply distressing to his majesty. In considering the estimates for the various branches of the public service, you will best consult his majesty's wishes, by combining all practicable economy with those efforts which it is necessary to make against the formidable and increasing power of the enemy.

My lords and gentlemen,

The long series of misfortune which has afflicted the continent of Europe could not fail to effect, in some degree, many important interests of the country. But, under every successive difficulty, his majesty has had the satisfaction of witnessing an increasing energy and firmness on the part of his people, whose uniform and determined resistance has been no less advantageous than honourable to themselves, and has exhibited the most striking example to the surrounding nations.

The unconquerable valour and discipline of his majesty's fleets and armies continue to be displayed with undiminished lustre. The great sources of our prosperity and strength are unimpaired; nor has the British nation been, at any time, more united in sentiment

and action, or more determined to maintain inviolate the independence of the empire, and the dignity of the national character.

With these advantages, and with a humble reliance on the protection of the Divince Providence, his majesty is prepared to meet the exigencies of this great crisis; assured of receiving the fullest support from the wisdom of your deliberations, and from the tried affection, loyalty, and public spirit of his brave people.

OFFICIAL NOTE.

The undersigned, minister plenipotentiary of his majesty the emperor and king to the states of lower Saxony, has received orders to declare, in the name of his sovereign, to the ministry of his highness the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, that in consequence of a passage being granted to the Russian troops through Mecklenburg, their long continuance in that country, and the support afforded them, it appears that these accommodations must have been the result of an intimate alliance between that country and Russia, but at the same time inconsistent with the duties of neutrality. France, therefore, cannot acknowledge the neutrality of Mecklenburg. Besides, as the govenor of Mecklenburg was invested with a command in the Russian army, he can be looked upon in no other light than as serving under the colours of the principal enemy of France. Mecklenburg, in consequence of various connections, has an immediate interest in the affairs of Russia; and, under the present circumstances, when the cabinet of St. Petersburgh, contrary to all right, and even without the least pretext, has violated the independence of the Ottoman porte, and, in fact, made itself master of the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia; a measure, in respect to Mecklenburg, which has a tendency to retaliate, cannot be neglected; it is a measure warranted by justice, and equally required by sound policy, and the interest of France. The undersigned is therefore charged to declare; 1. That it is the will of the emperor and king, on account of the assistance which this country has afforded to his enemies, that it shall be considered as having made a common cause with them. 2. That the future and ultimate fate of Mecklenburg will depend upon the conduct which Russia shall observe towards Moldavia and Wallachia. The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to assure the ministry of his highness the duke of Mecklenburg of his particular esteem.

BOURRIENNE.

Hamburgh, Nov. 27, 1806.

NOTIFICATION OF ENGLAND ABOUT THE FRENCH DECREE OF BLOCKADE.

At the court of the Queen's palace, the 7th of January, 1807, present, the king's most excellent majesty in council.

Whereas the French government has issued certain orders which, in violation of the usages of war, purport to prohibit the commerce of all neutral nations

with his majesty's dominions; and also to prevent such nations from trading with any other country in any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of his majesty's dominions; and whereas the said government has also taken upon itself to declare all his majesty's dominions to be in a state of blockade, at a time when the fleets of France and her allies are themselves confined within their own ports by the superior valour and discipline of the British navy; and whereas such attempts on the part of the enemy would give to his majesty an unquestionable right of retaliation, and would warrant his majesty in enforcing the same prohibition of all commerce with France, which that power vainly hopes to effect against the commerce of his majesty's subjects, a prohibition which the superiority of his majesty's naval forces might enable him to support, by actually investing the ports and coasts of the enemy with numerous squadrons and cruizers, so as to make the entrance or approach thereto manifestly dangerous; and whereas his majesty, though unwilling to follow the example of his enemies, by proceeding to an extremity so distressing to all nations not engaged in the war, and carrying on their accustomed trade, yet feels himself bound, by a due regard to the just defence of the rights and interest of his people, not to suffer such measures to be taken by the enemy, without taking some steps on his part to restrain this violence, and to retort upon them the evils of their own injuries. His majesty is thereupon pleased, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, that no vessel shall be permitted to trade from one port to another, both which ports shall belong to, or be in the possession of France or her allies, or shall be so far under their controul as that British vessels may not freely trade thereat; and the commanders of his Majesty's ships of war and privateers shall be, and are hereby instructed to warn every neutral vessel coming from any such port, and destined to another such port, to discontinue her voyage, and not to proceed to any such port; and any vessel, after being so warned, or any vessel coming from any such port, after a reasonable time shall have been afforded for receiving information of his majesty's order, which shall be found proceeding to another such port, shall be captured and brought in, and together with her cargo shall be condemned as lawful prize. And his majesty's principal secretaries of state, the lord commissioners of the admiralty, and the judges of the high court of admiralty, and courts of vice admiralty, are to take the necessary measures herein as to them shall respective appertain.

W. FAWKENER.

EXTRACT OF THE REGISTERS OF THE CONSERVATIVE SENATE OF FRANCE, OF FRIDAY, THE 20th OF FEBRUARY, 1807.

The conservative senate, united to the number of members prescribed by article XC of the act of the constitutions of the 22d Frimaire, year 8.

Deliberating upon the communications which were made to it

in the name of his majesty the emperor and king, by his serene highness the prince-arch-chancellor of the empire, in the sitting of the 17th of this month:

After hearing the report of its special commission, appointed in the same sitting;

Decrees that there shall be presented to his imperial and royal majesty, in answer to his majesty's message of the 29th of January last, an address, of which the following is the tenor:

SIRE,

The message which your imperial and royal majesty has just addressed to the senate, from your imperial camp of Warsaw, and the important acts which you have been graciously pleased to make known to it, will be a new monument of your paternal solicitude for the happiness of the French people.

The date of the treaties of Posen, which your imperial and royal majesty has caused to be communicated to the senate, would alone show, that, after the most shining victories, your majesty has for your aim only a peace the most honourable for nations, and consequently the one of which the longest duration may be hoped for.

These treaties, by securing the independence of a generous and brave nation, which its knowledge, its industry, its habits, and its interests ought to bind to France, increase and consolidate that grand confederation of the Rhine which the present state of Europe demands, and which your majesty's vast conceptions could alone give it, as the best guarantee of its future tranquillity.

The high wisdom of your imperial and royal majesty has easily seen, in the dangers of the Ottoman empire, those which menace all Europe.

Were the Porte to sink under the efforts of the Russians, what barriers would stop the wasting torrents of the barbarians with whom the north and the east would inundate the west and the south?

Violence, murder, conflagration, and destruction would mark the savage routes which the savage Scythians would follow. Do we not still see sad ruins attest their terrible passage through Italy, Swisserland, Holland, near the ever-famous plains of Austerlitz, and in that Poland, so many banks of which are about to be made for ever illustrious by the eminent feats of the armies conducted by your majesty? The arts, the sciences, nay, even civilization itself would perish; or, if the force of European institutions resisted these invasions perpetually renewed, of those hordes weary of their frozen climates, and which should unceasingly precipitate themselves towards the fine countries of Europe, what would be the fate of the industry of France, and above all of southern France?

The existence of this industry, so necessary to the prosperity of so many millions of Frenchmen, is combined with the independence of the throne of Constantinople. The provinces and seas approximate to the Bosphorus are the centre towards which nature meant to direct the routes of the trade of the world. Let the Russians take possession of them, and the trade of the world will soon be enslaved by them.

Happily, sire, the irresistible ascendant of your majesty has cheered Europe.

The rapid and unforeseen conquest of Prussia, and the appearance of the French eagles beyond the borders of the Vistula, have disconcerted the ambitious and perfidious projects of the court of St. Petersburgh. The Russians have found at Pultusk and at Golymin the conquerors of Austerlitz. An extraordinary combination in the course of the seasons, and vast regions of moving sands and drowned lands, were alone able to save their phalanxes from entire destruction. And at the moment when we address to your imperial and royal majesty our wishes and our homage, new songs of victory resound from the shores of the Pregel, to the great capital of the French empire.

And however, sire, what does your majesty demand to lay down your formidable arms? the liberty of trade and the independence of your allies.

Peace, sire, is the sole object of your desires, of your projects, of your noble enterprizes. But, like the French people, you will have it real and lasting.

Placed at the highest degree of power which victory has been able to give, you will not abandon to the hazards of half a century of new battles, the destinies of France and those of Europe, which the sequel of your triumphs can soon for ever fix.

You can no longer, sire, fight for renown. You have more glory than any hero has ever obtained. But you fight for a peace which may secure the happiness of the great people, of those who by their courage, their labours, their industry, their love for you, are so well deserving of the felicity for which you brave, every day, so many obstacles and dangers.

Soon, sire, they will see you again surrounded with innumerable trophies. They will see again round your triumphal car your invincible legions making the olive branch of the peace which you will have conquered shine in the eyes of France and of grateful Europe.

With what transports they will salute your august presence! and with how much devotion, fidelity, and affection they will repay all that the greatest monarchs will have done for their glory and prosperity.

We have already a pleasure, sire, in considering the arrival of your august consort in this great city, as the forerunner of that happy day for all Frenchmen, and upon which it will be permitted to the senate to offer your imperial and royal majesty the tribute of its gratitude, its admiration, and its respect.

The president and secretaries,

CAMBACERES,
Arch-chancellor of the Empire, President.
G. GARNIER.
FERINO.
LAPLACE,
The chancellor of the senate.

THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT TO THE SENATE.

The emperor having received the senatus consultum at Finckenstein, relative to the anticipated levy of 80,000 men for the conscription of 1808, together with

the address of the senate in answer to the message containing the proposal for that purpose, his majesty has ordered both documents to be printed. The following is the address:

SIRE,

The message which your imperial and royal majesty addressed from the imperial camp of Osterode, and the senatus consultum which we have adopted, are fresh proofs of the sublime foresight of your majesty, which leaves nothing to chance, when the dearest interests of France and the destiny of Europe are concerned. The country is going to put arms into the hands of eighty thousand of its children, who, in 1808, would have assembled round your majesty's eagles: the desire of putting a speedy end to a just and glorious war by a permanent peace, and not to leave any appearance of inquietude upon the public mind, has determined your majesty to assemble the young conscripts around your standards six months sooner than they would have been called out under circumstances less important.

During the time that must transpire before the epoch when their military career will be opened to them, they, being retained in France, and, as we may say, about their own homes, will acquire the habits of a military life in a manner more easy, more satisfactory, and more useful to the state than otherwise. Your imperial and royal majesty is going to give them the honour of defending the coasts and frontiers of the empire. In the camps in the interior of France, they may supply the places of those corps who have grown old in battles, and who ultimately receive that noble recompense which they claim with so much ardour, viz., the honour of combating again under your majesty's eye. If the islanders, abandoning the element which protects them, should dare to venture upon a country covered with camps and strong places, this youthful army will convince them that French valour is of every age, and soon make them repent an enterprize which the consciousness of our strength would rather lead us to wish for than avoid.

Victory, faithful to your majesty, has forced back the ravages of war three hundred leagues from our frontier. The legions of reserve, which will be formed of the new conscripts, will hasten to maintain that tranquillity in the interior of our provinces which they owe to your majesty's triumphs. In this noble employment, and in that of guaranteeing our frontiers by land and sea from invasion, they may diminish the fatigues and the constant assiduity on the part of those brave and respectable fathers of families, who, under the standards of the national guards, have generously devoted their time, so precious to their children and to the state, to the defence of the empire. Thus your majesty, in the midst of your phalanxes, and beyond the Vistula, never loses sight either of the interest of the manufactures, agriculture, commerce, or the domestic happiness of families; while you never cease to watch over the safety of our country; to interest yourself in its general prosperity, and prepare for the repose of Europe.

Your imperial and royal majesty has been pleased to call to the command of these legions the

Happily, sire, the irresistible ascendant of your majesty has cheered Europe.

The rapid and unforeseen conquest of Prussia, and the appearance of the French eagles beyond the borders of the Vistula, have disconcerted the ambitious and perfidious projects of the court of St. Petersburgh. The Russians have found at Pultusk and at Golymin the conquerors of Austerlitz. An extraordinary combination in the course of the seasons, and vast regions of moving sands and drowned lands, were alone able to save their phalanxes from entire destruction. And at the moment when we address to your imperial and royal majesty our wishes and our homage, new songs of victory resound from the shores of the Pregel, to the great capital of the French empire.

And however, sire, what does your majesty demand to lay down your formidable arms? the liberty of trade and the independence of your allies.

Peace, sire, is the sole object of your desires, of your projects, of your noble enterprizes. But, like the French people, you will have it real and lasting.

Placed at the highest degree of power which victory has been able to give, you will not abandon to the hazards of half a century of new battles, the destinies of France and those of Europe, which the sequel of your triumphs can soon for ever fix.

You can no longer, sire, fight for renown. You have more glory than any hero has ever obtained. But you fight for a peace which may secure the happiness of the great people, of those who by their courage, their labours, their industry, their love for you, are so well deserving of the felicity for which you brave, every day, so many obstacles and dangers.

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Your imperial and royal majesty has been pleased to call to the command of these legions the

members of the senate who had distinguished themselves in the career of glory before they took their seats among us. In the midst, sire, of camps and citadels, the same as within the walls of Paris, France will behold all her senators giving the same examples of absolute devotion to their country and to your majesty. Our colleagues will watch over the conduct of those young men whom your majesty will entrust to them, as fathers attentive to their children, worthy of so lively an interest. They will have no occasion to teach them to love glory, their country, and your majesty; but they will convince them that good discipline will increase their strength against the enemy; and that by the habit of military exercises they will overcome the difficulties of distance, climates, and seasons, without danger. They will acquaint them with the rapid advances with which they may become habituated. They will hold out to them the moment when, restored back to all that is dear to them, they will receive the esteem of their fellow-citizens as a new reward of their courage. They will convince them that public gratitude is not manifested in any country equal to France, towards those warriors whose wounds and honourable infirmities compel them to quit the standards under which they have fought: and they will point out to them that distinction, not less brilliant than glorious, with which your majesty rewards the splendid actions of the soldier equally with those of the general.

Your majesty has said, that your confidence in the senate is unlimited. Sire, the senate and the whole nation are penetrated with the most lively, perfect, and respectful confidence in your majesty's genius, in your wisdom, in your virtues, and your love of the French people.

In a few words, sire, the grand army, commanded by the greatest of warriors, has passed the Elbe, upon the borders of which Charlemagne was compelled to put a period to his conquests; and the Oder, astonished at seeing the French ensigns glittering upon its banks; the Vistula, and so many morasses, sands, and deserts, which divide it from the Oder. Nine of those places, fortified as strongly by art as by nature, the taking of any one of which would have illustrated a whole campaign under the most famous generals during the two last ages, have fallen into the hands of your majesty. Six hundred pieces of cannon taken upon the field of battle, four thousand pieces of heavy artillery, four hundred standards, a whole kingdom disarmed, and two hundred thousand prisoners, all attest the formidable power of your majesty's arms.

The generous Polish cohorts, the brave legions of Bavarians, Saxons, Wirtembergers, Badois, and other Germans, who make a part of the confederation of the Rhine, display in the midst of your eagles those ancient banners which their valour has decorated with new laurels.

The ranks of your army now present a hundred and thirty thousand combatants more than your majesty had at the commencement of the fourth coalition. Winter, the only ally of the Russians, will soon cease to defend the Muscovite frontiers by its frosts, its snows, and its inundations, and those waters that stagnate in its

immense deserts. Disease every day spreads its ravages among your enemies.

However, sire, greater precautions have never been concerted. From the Pyrennees to the Pregel, from Holland to Calabria, from Finisterre to the borders of the Cattaro, every thing is connected by an immense system of defence, as well as of attack. The union of these calculations of a prudence which can foresee and prevent every kind of reverse, and those sublime conceptions of genius which appreciates and secures the most astonishing success, have always preceded the great events that have marked the principal epochs of the career of your majesty's glory, which has always been connected with those plans, the execution of which has decided the fate of empires. Possibly, within a short time, your majesty, by one of these grand manœuvres inspired by the most sublime thoughts, perfected by the results of long experience, meditated in secret, developed with art, and executed with the rapidity of lightning, may place the grand army in a position which nature never discloses but to the skilful eye of a great captain, and where the enemy, surprised, turned, and surrounded, must either receive death or law from the conqueror. Your majesty will only dictate that of peace, necessary to Europe, and that peace which you have never ceased to offer.

With what astonishment, sire, will posterity learn, that, in spite of so many prodigies, which it will scarcely credit, and in spite of the prosperous situation of the finances of that state to which your majesty has no need to have recourse for a new contribution, nothing has been able to diminish your majesty's moderation? It is always the same; that moderation equally as admirable upon the borders of the Rhine as in the palace of the Thuilleries, and at Berlin just the same as before the battle of Jena; upon the field of battle strewed with Russians slain at Eylau, the same as in the capital of the great Frederic. Sire, you say in the message you have addressed to us, "If at this time we ask our people for new sacrifices, and to invest us with new means of power, we do not hesitate to declare, that it is not to abuse them in prolonging the war. Our politics are fixed. We offered peace to England before she brought forward the fourth coalition: this peace we offer her still. The principal minister whom she employed in the negotiation has positively declared, in the public assemblies, that this peace would have been honourable and advantageous to England. He has thus given evidence to the justice of our cause. We are ready to conclude peace with Russia upon the same conditions which its negociator had signed, and which the intrigues and influence of England compelled the emperor Alexander to reject. We are ready to restore tranquillity to the eight millions of people conquered by us, and the capital of Prussia to its sovereign." But, sire, how affecting are the words which you add! "Frenchmen, we will brave all dangers for the glory and the repose of our children." Sire, every Frenchman will brave all dangers for their country and its dear father. CAMBACERES,

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Paris, April 7.

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Arch Chancellor of the Empire, President.

Paris, April 7.

KING'S MESSAGE, DISSOLVING THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT, APRIL 27, 1807.

The lord chancellor, in his majesty's name, delivered the following speech in the house of lords:

"*My lords and gentlemen,*

"We have in command from his majesty to inform you that his majesty has thought fit to avail himself of the first moment which would admit of the interruption of the sitting of parliament, without material inconvenience to the public business, to close the present session: and that his majesty has therefore been pleased to cause a commission to be issued, under the great seal, for proroguing parliament.

"We are further commanded to state to you, that his majesty is anxious to recur to the sense of his people, while the events which have recently taken place are yet fresh in their recollection.

"His majesty feels, that, in resorting to this measure, under the present circumstances, he at once demonstrates in the most unequivocal manner, his own conscientious persuasion of the rectitude of those motives upon which he has acted; and affords to his people the best opportunity of testifying their determination to support him in every exercise of the prerogatives of his crown, which is conformable to the sacred obligations under which they are held, and conducive to the welfare of his kingdom, and to the security of the constitution.

"His majesty directs us to express his entire conviction, that after so long a reign, marked by a series of indulgences to his Roman catholic subjects, they, in common with every other class of his people, must feel assured of his attachment to the principles of a just and enlightened toleration; and of his anxious desire to protect equally, and promote impartially, the happiness of all descriptions of his subjects.

"*Gentlemen of the house of commons,*

"His majesty has commanded us to thank you, in his majesty's name, for the supplies which you have furnished for the public service.

"He has seen, with great satisfaction, that you have been able to find the means of defraying, in the present year, those large but necessary expences, for which you have provided, without imposing upon his people the immediate burden of additional taxes.

"His majesty has observed with no less satisfaction the inquiries which you have instituted into subjects connected with public economy. And he trusts that the early attention of the new parliament, which he will forthwith direct to be called, will be applied to the prosecution of these important objects.

"*My lords and gentlemen,*

"His majesty has directed us most earnestly to recommend to you, that you should cultivate, by all means in your power, a spirit of union, harmony, and good will amongst all classes and descriptions of his people.

"His majesty trusts that the divisions naturally and unavoidably excited by the late unfortunate and uncalled for agitation of a question so interesting to the feelings and opinions of his people, will speedily pass away; and that the prevailing sense and determination of all his subjects to exert

their united efforts in the cause of their country, will enable his majesty to conduct to an honourable and secure termination the great contest in which it is engaged."

The lord chancellor then, in his majesty's name, and by virtue of the said commission, declared the parliament to be prorogued to Wednesday, the 13th day of May next.

The lords commissioners withdrew from the house, and the commons retired from the bar.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

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ACCOUNT OF THE MASSACRE IN ST DOMINGO, IN MAY, 1806*.

AFTER the general massacre in Hispaniola, in the months of March and April, 1804, when, upon the smallest computation, ten thousand innocent whites must have fallen victims to the brutal vengeance of Dessalines, it was discovered that many unfortunate wretches had escaped, some by concealment, others by declaring themselves people of colour, and many by the humanity of indigene officers, who granted them protection; many also were preserved by Dessalines himself, as persons whose talents would be of service to the state.

After the fury of the governor-general (for he was not at that time emperor) had abated, and after the troops, wearied with blood and murder, had reposed themselves to enjoy in riot the delightful fruits of their rapine, the wretched whites appear, and are suffered to exist. Cape Francois, to which my observations will be chiefly confined, contained about three hundred men, women, and children, and the island in total about six to eight hundred.

It is well known, that ever since the island has been in possession of the negroes, no subject whatever has been permitted to leave it, and from the strictness of the regulations, it is almost a matter of impossibility for a person to get off. Still, however, Dessalines, jealous lest one poor creature should

* The above narrative is an anonymous performance, originally published in the American newspapers. Its only claim to credit must arise from the probable nature of the incidents contained in it. Imperfect as this kind of testimony is, it is, in general, the only kind accessible to a minute historian of contemporary events, where official intelligence is wanting.

escape his cruelty, after he is elected emperor, orders, that all the white French remaining in the different sea-port towns, should be sent into the interior of the country to assist in the forts. Christophe, general in chief, residing at the Cape, out of pure humanity, for he knew that the sufferings of the whites, if sent to the forts, would be excessive, overlooked the orders of his majesty, and permitted them to remain in town, to follow their accustomed occupations for their support. In this situation, time passed on in seeming tranquillity, until the distressing event which took place in April, 1806.

On Easter Sunday, the 6th of April, general Christophe, having removed to a new house on the Place d'Armes, gave a breakfast, supper, and ball, in superior style, at the former of which were several of the whites of most respectability. The day and night passed on in perfect harmony, and every individual seemed rejoiced to see their general enjoying himself in conviviality.

On the following morning, a journeyman taylor lodged information with the commandant of the place, that his employer, Thoret, with his wife, mother-in-law, and child, were missing from their house. The commandant immediately went there, and, finding it to be a fact, gave information of it to the general in chief. The commissaries of the different wards were instantly dispatched through their districts, and, in the course of an hour, discovered that Roulet, a physician, Poujedebat and Lafaye, merchants, were also missing.

As no escapes had hitherto occurred but by American vessels, suspicion immediately fell upon them, particularly upon the schooner Ceres, of Philadelphia, which was to have sailed that, or the day following. Christophe instantly went in person on the wharf, and ordered a guard to march all the persons who were there to prison, among whom were several American captains and sailors. The thing was then reduced to a certainty, that the fugitives were on board some of the vessels in the harbour, and, if discovered, from the fury of Christophe, we really expected the execution of the crew, captain, and consignee. The Americans were indeed in a very serious and critical situation. Christophe was before them on the wharf, raving like a madman; as some of them approached him he repulsed them, and at one time pointing to the scale beam on which the unfortunate Tate was hung, declared "This day an American shall suffer." No person dare approach him; even his most particular friends and intimates among the blacks dreaded his measures, and not one dare speak to him. The whole city was in commotion. The French people trembled at the consequences, the good blacks pitied their situation, and lamented the general's dreadful passion, and the savage part of the community joined with Christophe in his invectives against the Americans: wherever we appeared we were insulted, and those officers who had formerly been our intimate friends, would not notice us as they passed, but with sneers and insinuations that we had much to fear.

In this situation we were ordered by the general to the house

of the interpreter, who there addressed us in the following words: "the general knows that those people are concealed on board of some of your vessels: it will be for your interest to deliver them up, and the general promises that if that be done immediately, no farther measures shall be pursued." What could we say? each man was satisfied of his own innocence; yet we were all in doubtful anxiety. The merchants did not know what the captains had done, and the captain could place no reliance on his men.

This plan failing, for we all denied any knowledge of the affair, the general orders all the sailors to prison, and they were consequently, to the number of about three hundred, taken from out of their vessels, and put into the common jail. A boy was left on board of each vessel, whilst the commandant with a guard of soldiers visited and searched them.

It is remarkable that Christophe, whose rage for several days was unexampled, was frequently heard to exclaim, in fits of frenzy, "what shall I say to the emperor?" As above stated, he had neglected obeying his majesty's orders in sending the whites to the forts, and he very much feared his displeasure. He, however, instantly dispatched one of his aids to Camp Marchand, the emperor's residence, about one hundred and twenty miles distant, and, before his return, no vessel was suffered to depart. The remainder of Easter week was employed in sending out of town all the remaining whites; and, as the real method of the escape had not yet been discovered, the Americans were considered still as the offenders, and, though nothing could be proved against them, were insulted as they passed through the streets, and oftentimes by the soldiers saluted as *dogs*. The mistresses, who were women of colour, that had been left by three of the Frenchmen, were put in irons, and cast into prison, nor could all the supplications of his wife and her friends move Christophe to a sentiment of lenity. They were kept in prison, with scarcely any thing to eat or drink, until the general became in some measure convinced that they were not acquainted with the intention of their husbands to escape.

The wretched whites suspected pretty strongly the cause of their journey into the country, but neither had they nor we any idea of their dissolution being so near. By the time the affair had a little subsided, and the fury of the populace had in some measure dispersed, it was found out, that the fugitive whites had been seen, on Easter Sunday, passing the barrier and ferry which lay on the road to the country, separately, and some of them on horseback, as if taking an afternoon's ride: that a boat which had been bought by a Frenchman from the captain of an American vessel wrecked on the island was missing, and that a black man belonging to the city was also absent. From these circumstances, and some traces found on the sand, it was finally concluded, that the party had during the night met, and embarked near Petite Ance, about a mile and a half out of town, and that they intended to pursue the coast to the eastward towards Samana and Santa Do-

mingo, which were in possession of the French.

It was certainly a *chef-d'œuvre*, in the fortunate fugitives, to conduct their plan with so much secrecy and care, that not the least suspicion was entertained of their intentions, and to have appointed a time when all the officers were engaged in dissipation and revel.

Christophe having been informed that the whole four men who had escaped were freemasons, took up the idea that the lodge had assisted in their escape, and, without making any further enquiries, went to the lodge, which was a neat and beautiful building, with his aids de camp, and destroyed it. He divided the furniture among his aids, tore up the marble pavement in the piazza, carried off the Venetian window-shutters, laid claim to the funds of the institution that were in the treasurer's hands, and finally ordered that no lodge should again sit in the Cape. This act of sacrilege in Chistophe will deservedly ensure him the execration of the whole order of masons throughout the world, wherever it be known. He has committed a crime unexampled in history, by overturning one of the most sacred of institutions.

This conduct of Christophe soon became known at the imperial court, when the secretaries, ministers, and officers of the staff, near his majesty, who are most of them masons, explained the affair to Dessalines, who though not of the order, very severely reprimanded Christophe.

There was a member of the lodge, a Frenchman, by the name of Ambroise, who had been preserved by the government, on account of his superior talents as an engineer. This man went to Christophe, and told him, in plain terms, that he had been guilty of sacrilege in destroying the lodge. The general in a rage ordered him to be shot instantly; "aye, that's what I desire," replied Ambroise, "place me before one of those cannons that I have been erecting to satisfy your pride and ambition, and blow me to atoms; I should glory in the death;" but Christophe on reflection recollected that he was too valuable a man to lose, and simply ordered him from his presence.

About the same time this commotion happened in the Cape, another of a similar nature took place at Camp Marchand. Eighteen Frenchmen, who had been employed near his majesty in the nice branches of mechanical trades, attempted to make their escape. One of them, who was a printer, blacked the faces of his comrades, and they started off in the evening. At some little distance, they got into a dispute about the choice of roads; their object was to go by land towards the city of St. Domingo. Six insisted on pursuing the main road, and twelve a bye-path; the *twelve* went clear, but the unfortunate *six* were overtaken, next day, by a party of dragoons. Two of them were cut to pieces in the encounter that ensued, two of them were disarmed, and two submitted without making any resistance. The four survivors were then conducted back to the emperor, who thus addressed them: "Why did you treat me so basely? Were you not provided for as my children, and had you not as much you could eat and drink? But again, since you did break my laws by attempting

to leave me, why did you suffer yourselves to be taken? Did you not know that I would put you to death if I caught you again? Why did you not fight and die like your brave companions?" Two of them replied, that they had fought, but were overpowered. "And you two?" turning to the others; "Why, your majesty, we knew that we should be vanquished, and concluded to rely upon the mercy of your majesty." "Hang those two cowards instantly," were the orders, and they were without hesitation executed. The remaining two who had fought were suffered to live.

The loss of the twelve who went off from Marchand, combined with the escape of the seven from the Cape, exasperated the emperor to so violent a degree, that he instantaneously decreed the destruction of all the remaining whites. His orders reach Christophe, who retires to the fort Ferrier, and singles out twelve or fifteen whites who must be preserved. Some of these he has with him, and some remain in town, but under the immediate eye of the commandant of the place, who is directed to see that no injury is done them. Except very few, all the other whites are in the country, where, as I have above stated, they were sent a short time before. These arrangements are all carried on so secretly, that not a word is known of the intentions or movements of the government, until Tuesday morning, the 13th of May, when we learn with horror and concern that all the unfortunate whites, except those marked for preservation, were assassinated during the preceding night. As it was done out of the city, our ears were not assailed with the shrieks of the dying victims, nor were our gutters, as in the preceding massacre, floating with streams of human blood. The only trace of murder to be seen in the streets was one spot of about half a gallon of blood; one unfortunate family however were butchered in the town, and as it will give some idea of the modes of murder pursued by the Haytians, I will give the particulars. It was publicly communicated through the town on the following day, by the nurse of the family, a negro woman, who openly pointed out the individuals employed on the expedition.

Mr. Selle was a baker, and a man of respectability; Dessalines and Christophe had long expressed a great friendship for him, and, after having saved him from the general massacre of 1804, appointed him baker of the army. His wife was a handsome, genteel woman of about thirty-five, and they had three small children, the youngest of which was at the breast.

Richard, commandant of the place, with a guard of soldiers, went to the house about midnight, and, knocking at the door, called Mr. Selle to come down and let him in. He said he had just received orders from the emperor, to send out of the city all the house servants, and that he wanted theirs. Madame Selle, upon hearing this, called out, "I hope, commandant, you don't intend taking my nurse, I have a young infant, and rather than you should take its nurse you might take me." Richard insisted upon entering, and Mr. Selle was obliged to open the door. He entered, and, at a certain signal, four black grenadiers rushed in, and throwing a rope with a noose

round Mr. Selle's neck, and one round his wife's, hauled upon the ends till they were both strangled. They then mashed the baby in their hands, and strangled the other two children who were asleep in bed. The chests were then broken open, and the money taken off by the commandant.

After this barbarity, the wicked assassins, instead of burying the bodies of this unfortunate family, to hide their guilt from the eyes of the world, dragged them to a ditch on the very edge of the town, about two hundred yards from their house, where they lay uncovered and exposed, till the dogs and the vermin had devoured them. Several of the Americans went to see the horrid spectacle, and an indigene of veracity one day assured me, that he saw a dog running through the streets with one of madame Selle's hands in his mouth.

The massacre in the country was not executed as the former had been, by the troops solely. Christophe said that the soldiers had already waded deep enough in blood, and on that account allotted a great part of the labour to the cultivators of the plantations, who on the occasion made use of their great knives, and butchered the men, women, and children, in perfect *sang froid*.

On the afternoon succeeding this affair, a man by the name of Loi, a great artillerist, and one intended to be preserved, was sent for by the general at the fort. His wife accompanied him, and, at a short distance from the town, the soldiers took her aside from the road to kill her; Loi saw it, snatched a sabre from one of the soldiers, and engaged them all. He laid two or three on the spot, but was finally killed, with his wife. Loi was a fine bold military-looking man, and was one of the soldiers that crossed the bridge of Lodi with Bonaparte. His house in town, being deserted, afforded a favourable opportunity for a pillage, whereupon, in the night, it was broken open and completely plundered, even to the very boards. The wine and rum found there (being a store) intoxicated the soldiers for the next day, and the little taste they had had of common property resolved them to lay a plan for a *general pillage*. The Americans saw the dangerous situation in which they were placed; for, had it not been prevented by the government, they would have been the chief sufferers, and many of them would no doubt have perished. But the officers of government having heard of this intention, ordered out the militia of the city, and all the mutinous party of the soldiery were apprehended and put into prison. Had general Christophe been in the city, this riot would not have occurred, but from the circumstance of his absence we concluded that it was connived at, particularly as Proix, the adjutant of the place, was present at the pillage of Loi's house. Affairs certainly had a very dangerous complexion, the stores and shops were shut up, and no business was done for several days. Our alarm was very considerable, and no doubt observed by most of the indigenes, until the 15th, when we were favoured with a letter from the general in chief, of which the following is a translation:

"*Milo, May* 15, 1806.

"*To the American Merchants in the Cape.*

"GENTLEMEN,

"I have just been informed by my adjutant-general La Motte, that you have evinced fears relative to the late measures pursued by our government. From whence do those fears arise? Hath any one molested you? If so, you shall be redressed.

"You are not ignorant, gentlemen, that as long as you attend to your commerce and your own affairs only, you will enjoy every consideration of the government, and in future I desire that I may hear no more of these complaints. Dissipate, therefore, your fears, rest easy, and never again call into question our fidelity.

"I have the honour to be, &c.,

"HENRY CHRISTOPHE."

To which the following answer was immediately returned:

"*To his Excellency Henry Christophe, General in Chief of the Armies of Hayti.*

"*Cape, May* 15, 1806.

"We have just had the honour of receiving your excellency's letter from Milo of this date, wherein you state that you have been informed that the Americans have evinced fears relative to the late measures pursued by government. We must beg leave to mention to your excellency that you have been misinformed. We had fears, it is true, but they did not arise from the measures of government; on the contrary, we have always placed the fullest confidence in your promises of protection. They were occasioned by a riotous collection of soldiers, who had threatened a general pillage, who showed every symptom of carrying their menaces into execution, and who had already committed several acts of rapine.

"As mobs in all countries of the world (and we have more than once witnessed them in our own) are seriously dangerous, and, when once fairly risen, are difficult to suppress, we thought it but prudent to wait upon the commandant of the place, and know from him what was our real situation. From him and the administration we received every satisfaction, and our alarms were consequently dissipated.

"We are sorry that an affair of so trifling a nature should have been thus represented to your excellency to our prejudice, and we beg that you will not for a moment suppose that we ever doubted your fidelity. We again assure your excellency, that we shall ever retain a deep sense of the kindness we have experienced from you, and that our confidence in the protection of the government is unbounded.

"We have the honour to be

"Your excellency's

"Most obedient servants, &c.,

"H. M.

"J. D.

"*For the American merchants at the Cape.*"

This correspondence had in some measure a tendency to remove our uneasiness as to our situation, and affairs again resumed the appearance of tranquillity.

As near as I could calculate, about six or seven hundred persons were destroyed throughout

the island during the massacre, and many, about a hundred, are still existing. In the Cape they have left two priests, a physician, printer, engineer, architect, two clerks in public offices, and four blacksmiths, with four or five women.

It is worthy to be recorded, and it redounds to his immortal honour, that the general of division, Petion, residing at Port-au-Prince, refused to obey the orders of the emperor, and, instead of murdering the whites, of whom there were not more than twenty, put them into prison, and Dessalines himself, his fury having abated, a few days afterwards, passing through Port-au-Prince, released them himself, and they are at this instant living.

A LETTER FROM MR. H. TOULMIN, FOR SOME YEARS PRINCIPAL SECRETARY TO THE GOVERNOR AND STATE OF KENTUCKY; NOW A DISTRICT JUDGE OF THE CIRCUIT COURT IN THE MISSISIPPI TERRITORY, TO MR. G—— OF ——.

SIR,

It was but a few days since I received your letter of April 25th. I should have been happy to have seen you in Kentucky on your first arrival in America; and I shall be glad, when you do come, to render you any services in my power. I will proceed to give you such information respecting this country as you may probably wish; though, as it is likely you are not entirely a stranger to it, I may possibly mention circumstances, many of which you are already acquainted with.

You ask me at what price a hundred acres of land, with twenty or thirty cleared, can be obtained?—The prices are very various, from one dollar to ten per acre, according to the situation. Near this place, which is the seat of our government, such a tract would cost from five to six hundred dollars. At the distance of three or four miles from town, near Lexington, it would be somewhat higher. But if you go into the southern, or rather western, part of the state, I suppose you might obtain such a tract for less than three hundred dollars. Indeed, there are still some vacant lands, which are sold to settlers by the public at twenty dollars per hundred acres; but there is not much left which has any timber upon it, though otherwise very good land; but, being destitute of timber, that kind of land is called barrens.

However, let me advise you, when you come to the state, to be very cautious about buying; or, rather, not to buy at all till you have been some time in the country; or, at least, not without the advice of some friends, in whom you can confide: for Europeans who bring money, and lay it out immediately, are almost sure to be imposed upon.

The general object of farming here is not the same it is in England. Here a man proposes to live by his farm *directly*; there it is *indirectly*: that is, he raises wheat, barley, stock, &c., for sale, consuming but a small proportion in his own family; here he raises almost every thing with a view to family consumption, even his clothing is made at home, and he

sells no more than what will serve him to buy salt and a few other articles.

Having travelled some little time in America, you have probably learnt something of our mode of travelling. Englishmen, however, frequently do not learn it till they have spent all their money. But a Kentucky man, if he is alone, and much more if he takes all his family with him, carries his own provisions along with him, or buys them from time to time at private houses, in order to save tavern charges. Nay, they will often sleep in the woods, to avoid the expence of beds: and I know, from experience, that a blanket before a good fire, out of doors, is much better than an indifferent bed in a dirty house. The route to this place is to Redstone; then down the Ohio river to the mouth of the Kentucky river, about forty miles from which, on the bank of the river, is the town of Frankfort. Goods from the mouth of the river can be brought to this place, either by water or on horseback.

The prices of sundry articles are as follows: wheat, ½ a dollar per bushel; oats, ¼ dollar ditto; potatoes, ¼ dollar ditto; beef, 2½ to 3½ dollars per hundred weight, or 2½d. or 3d. per pound, Virginia money; pork, 2 dollars, or 2½ per hundred weight; smoked bacon, from 4d. to 6d. per pound; salt, from 1¾ of a dollar to 3 dollars per bushel; country sugar, from ⅛ to ¼ of a dollar per pound, according to the season. Tea about the same as in England.

English and other European manufactories are very dear; at least 50 per cent., in general, more than at the retail shops in England. Bricks now at 5 dollars per thousand: some have lately been sold at 3½. There are several brick-makers here, but every man will come in for his share. There are no tile-makers: indeed, tiles are not known with us; though, I think, they would be better than shingles for many kinds of buildings.

Now, for a person with 300l. to make a comfortable living, must depend altogether upon his wants, and upon his qualifications. The mere interest of 300l., though it would go further here than perhaps elsewhere, would not enable a man to live in *such a manner* as it may be supposed that a man who has 300l. has been accustomed to. But if he can plough, and do other things appertaining to a farm, and if his wife or his daughter can spin either flax, or wool, or cotton, enough to clothe the family, unquestionably he may have an abundance. I suppose you mean 300l. sterling, which is 400l. of this money. We may suppose it is to be laid out as mentioned underneath:

	Virginia Currency. £.	s.	*Sterling.* £.	s.	d.
Eighty acres of land, with decent cabins, and thirty cleared	120	0	90	0	0
Two plough horses	30	0	22	10	0
Two cows and calves	6	0	4	10	0
Ten sheep	6	0	4	10	0
One plough	1	16	1	7	0
Geers and saddle	6	0	4	10	0

	Virginia Currency.		*Sterling.*		
	£.	s.	£.	s.	d.
A one-horse cart - -	10	0	7	10	0
Household furniture - -	20	0	15	0	0
One year's provisions, viz., 1000 wt. of pork	6	0	4	10	0
Three hundred weight of beef -	2	14	2	0	6
Three bushels of salt -	1	16	1	7	0
Forty ditto of wheat - -	6	0	4	10	0
Eighty ditto of Indian corn -	4	16	3	12	0
Two thousand weight of hay -	2	0	1	10	0
Twenty bushels of potatoes -	1	10	1	2	6
Sundries - - -	6	0	4	10	0
	230	12	172	19	0

Which will leave 169l. 8s. for contingencies, and for purchasing outlands for the benefit of his children at a future day. On this 30 acres of land, with domestic manufactures, he may support his family. I should mention that the prevalent religious sects here are baptists and presbyterians. In am, sir, yours, with every good wish,

H. TOULMIN.

Franckfort, Kentucky,
June 28, 1802.

LETTER OF GENERAL WASHINGTON TO SIR JOHN SINCLAIR, CONTAINING A SHORT DESCRIPTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

SIR,

The near view which you have of the revolution in France, and of the political state of things in Europe, especially those of Great Britain, has enabled you to form a judgment with so much more accuracy than I could do of the probable result of the perturbated state of the countries which compose that quarter of the globe, and of the principal actors in that theatre, that it would be presumptuous in me, at the distance of 3000 miles, to give an opinion relatively to either men or measures; and therefore I will proceed to the information required in your private letter of the 11th of September, which I will give from the best knowledge I possess, and with the candour you have a right to expect from me.

The United States, as you well know, are very extensive, more than 1500 miles between the north-eastern and south-western extremities; all parts of which, from the seaboard to the Apalachian mountains (which divide the eastern from the western waters), are entirely settled, though not as compactly as they are susceptible of; and settlements are progressing rapidly beyond them.

Within so great a space, you are not to be told that there are a great variety of climates; and you will readily suppose, too, that there are all sorts of land, differently improved, and of various prices, according to the quality of the soil; its contiguity to, or remoteness from navigation; the nature of the improvements, and other local cir-

cumstances. These, however, are only sufficient for the formation of a *general* opinion; for there are material deviations, as I shall mention hereafter.

In the New England states, and to Pennsylvania inclusively, landed property is more divided than it is in the states south of them.

The farms are smaller; the buildings and other improvements generally better; and, of consequence, the population is greater: but then the climate, especially to the eastward of Hudson's river, is cold; the winters long, consuming a great part of the summer's labour in support of their stocks during the winter. Nevertheless, it is a country abounding in grass, and furnishes much fine beef, besides exporting many horses to the West Indies.

A mildew or blight (I am speaking now of the New England states particularly) prevents them from raising wheat adequate to their own consumption, and of other grains they export little or none; fish being their staple. They live well notwithstanding, and are a happy people. Their numbers are not augmented by foreign emigrants; yet, from their circumscribed limits, compact situation, and natural population, they are filling the western parts of the state of New-York, and the country on the Ohio, with their own surplusage.

New Jersey is a small state, and all parts of it, except the south-western, are pleasant, healthy, and productive of all kinds of grain, &c. Being surrounded on two sides by New York, and on the other two by Delaware river and the Atlantic, it has no land of its own to supply the surplus of its population; of course, their emigrations are principally towards the Ohio.

Pennsylvania is a large state; and, from the policy of its founder, and of the government since, and especially from the celebrity of Philadelphia, has become the general receptacle of foreigners from all countries, and of all descriptions, many of whom soon take an active part in the politics of the state; and coming over full of prejudices against their own governments, some against all governments, you will be enabled, without any comment of mine, to draw your own inference of their conduct.

Delaware is a very small state, the greater part of which lies low, and is supposed to be unhealthy. The eastern shore of Maryland is similar thereto. The lands in both, however, are good.

But the western parts of the last-mentioned state, and of Virginia, quite to the line of North Carolina, above tide water (and more especially above the Blue Mountains), are similar to those of Pennsylvania, between the Susquehanna and Potomac rivers, in soil, climate, and productions; and in my opinion will be considered, if it is not considered so already, as the garden of America; forasmuch as it lies between the two extremes of heat and cold, partaking in a degree of the advantages of both, without feeling much the inconveniences of either; and, with truth it may be said, is among the most fertile lands in America east of the Apalachian Mountains.

The uplands of North and South Carolina and Georgia are not dissimilar in soil; but, as

they approach the lower latitudes, are less congenial to wheat, and are supposed to be proportionably more unhealthy. Towards the seaboard of all the southern states (and further south, the more so), the country is low, sandy, and unhealthy; for which reason I shall say little concerning them: for, as I should not chuse to be an inhabitant of them myself, I ought not to say any thing that would induce others to be so.

This general description is furnished, that you may be enabled to form an idea of the part of the United States which would be most congenial to your inclination. To pronounce with any degree of precision, what lands could be obtained for in the parts I have enumerated, is next to impossible, for the reasons I have before assigned; but upon pretty good data it may be said, that those in Pennsylvania are higher than those in Maryland (and, I believe, in any other state), declining in price as you go southerly, until the rice swamps of South Carolina and Georgia are met with; and these are as much above the medium in price, as they are below it in health. I understand, however, that from 30 to 40 dollars per acre (I fix on dollars because they apply equally to all the states, and because their relative value to sterling is well understood), may be denominated the medium price in the vicinity of the Susquehanna, in the state of Pennsylvania; from 20 to 30 on the Potomac*; and less, as I have noticed before, as you proceed southerly. But, what may appear singular, and was alluded to in the former part of this letter, the lands in the parts of which I am now speaking, on and contiguous to tide-water (with local exceptions), are in lower estimation than those which are above, and more remote from navigation. The causes, however, are apparent: 1, the land is better; 2, higher, and more healthy; 3, they are chiefly, if not altogether, in the occupation of farmers; and 4, from a combination of all these, purchasers are attracted, and of consequence the prices rise in proportion to the demand. The rise in the value of landed property in this country has been progressive ever since my attention has been turned to the subject, now more than 40 years; but for the last three or four of that period, it has increased beyond all calculation; owing, in part, to the attachment to, and the confidence which the people are beginning to place in their form of government, and to the prosperity of the country from a variety of concurring causes, none more than to the late high prices of its produce.

From what I have said, you will have perceived that the present prices of land in Pennsylvania are higher than they are in Maryland and Virginia, although they are not of superior quality. Two reasons have already been assigned for this: 1, that in the settled part of it the land is divided into smaller farms, and more improved; and 2, being in a greater degree than any other the receptacle of emigrants, these receive their first impressions in Philadelphia, and rarely look beyond the limits of

* Both in what is called the Valley; that is, lying between the Blue Mountain and North Mountain, which are the richest lands we have.

the state. But besides these, two other causes, not a little operative, may be added; namely, that until congress passed general laws relative to naturalization and citizenship, foreigners found it easier to obtain the privileges annexed to them in this state than elsewhere; and because there are laws here for the gradual abolition of slavery, which neither of the two states above-mentioned have at present, but which nothing is more certain than that they must have, and at a period not remote.

Notwithstanding these obstacles, and although I may incur the charge of partiality in hazarding such an opinion at *this time*, I do not hesitate to pronounce that the lands of the waters of Potomac will in a few years be in greater demand, and in higher estimation, than in any other part of the United States. But as I ought not to advance this doctrine without assigning reasons for it, I will request you to examine a general map of the United States, and the following facts will strike you at the first view: that they lie in the most temperate latitude of the United States; that the main river runs in a *direct* course to the expanded part of the western country, and approximates nearer to the principal branches of the Ohio than any other eastern water; and of course must become a great, if not (under all circumstances) the best highway into that region; that the upper sea-port of the Potomac is considerably nearer to a large portion of the state of Pennsylvania, than that portion is to Philadelphia; besides accommodating the settlers thereof with inland navigation for more than 200 miles; that the amazing extent of tide navigation afforded by the bay and rivers of Chesapeak, has scarcely a parallel. When to these are added, that a site at the junction of the inland and tide navigation of that river is chosen for the permanent seat of the general government, and is in rapid preparation for its reception; that the inland navigation of the river is nearly completed to the extent above mentioned; and that its lateral branches are capable of great improvement, at a small expence, through the most fertile parts of Virginia in a southerly direction, and crossing Maryland and extending into Pennsylvania in a northerly one, through which (independent of what may come from the western country) an immensity of produce will be water-borne, thereby making the federal city the great emporium of the United States; I say, when these things are taken into consideration, I am under no apprehension of having the opinion I have given relative to the value of land on Potomac controverted by impartial men.

There are farms always, and every where, for sale: if, therefore, events should induce you to cast an eye towards America, there need be no apprehension of your being accommodated to your liking; and if I could be made useful to you therein, you might command my services with the greatest freedom.

Within full view of Mount Vernon, separated therefrom by water only, is one of the most beautiful seats on the river for sale; but of greater magnitude than you seem to have contemplated. It is called Belvoir, and did belong to George William Fairfax, Esq., who, were he liv-

ing, would now be baron of Cameron, as his younger brother in this country (he George William dying without issue) at present is, though he does not take upon himself the title. This seat was the residence of the above-named gentleman before he went to England, and was accommodated with very good buildings, which were burnt soon after he left them.

There are near 2000 acres of land belonging to the tract surrounded in a manner by water. The mansion-house stood on high and commanding ground. The soil is not of the first quality; but a considerable part of it lying level, may, with proper management, be profitably cultivated. There are some small tenements on the estate, but the greater part thereof is in wood. At present it belongs to Thomas Fairfax, son of Bryan Fairfax, the gentleman who will not, as I said before, take upon himself the title of baron of Cameron. A year or two ago, the price he fixed on the land was, as I have been informed, 33⅓ dollars per acre: whether not getting that sum, or whether he is no longer disposed to sell it, I am unable with precision to say; for I have heard nothing concerning his intentions lately.

With respect to the tenements I have offered to let, appertaining to my Mount Vernon estate, I can give no better description of them, and of their appurtenances, than what is contained in the printed advertisement herewith inclosed, but, that you may have a more distinct view of the farms, and their relative situation to the mansion house, a sketch from actual survey is also inclosed; annexed to which I have given you, from memory, the relative situation and form of the seat at Belvoir.

The terms on which I have authorized the superintendant of my concerns at Mount Vernon to lease the farms there, are also inclosed; which, with the other papers and the general information herein detailed, will throw all the light I am enabled to give you upon the subject of your enquiry.

To have such a tenant as sir John Sinclair, however desirable it might be, is an honour I dare not hope for; and to alienate any part of the fee simple estate of Mount Vernon is a measure I am not inclined to, as all the farms are connected, and form parts of a whole.

With very great esteem and respect, I have the honour to be, sir, your most obedient and obliged humble servant.

G. WASHINGTON.

Philadelphia, Dec. 11, 1796.

CHARACTER OF DR. FRANKLIN.

A just view of the character of Dr. Franklin has probably never been given by any of his countrymen. While living, the world was divided into passionate friends and rancorous enemies, and since his death a kind of political tincture still adheres to all our sentiments concerning him. Among his own countrymen, prejudice and passion, which used to be enlisted wholly on his side, has, in some respects, become hostile to him, and an impartial estimate of his merits can perhaps only be looked for among foreigners. The following portrait is taken from

a foreign publication, and seems to be altogether dispassionate and equitable.

Nothing, says this writer, can show more clearly the singular want of literary enterprize or activity in America, than that no one has yet been found, in that flourishing republic, to collect and publish the works of their only philosopher. It is not even very creditable to the liberal curiosity of the English public, that there should have been no complete edition of the writings of Dr. Franklin, till the year 1806; nor should we be able to account for the imperfect manner in which the task has now been performed, but for a statement in the prefatory advertisement. We are told, that recently after the death of the author, his grandson, to whom the whole of his papers were bequeathed, made a voyage to London, for the purpose of preparing and disposing of a complete collection of all his published and unpublished writings, with memoirs of his life, brought down by himself to the year 1757, and continued to his death by his descendant. The work was to be published in three quarto volumes, in England, Germany, and France; and a negotiation was commenced with the booksellers. At this stage of the business, however, the proposals were suddenly withdrawn, and nothing more has been heard of the work in this its fair and natural market. It is hinted that the suppression of the work was purchased by the British ministry.

We shall omit the reflexions which this statement naturally suggests to us, whether we consider the claims of the dead or of the living, and proceed to some general remarks upon the character of Franklin.

This self-taught American is the most rational, perhaps, of all philosophers. He never loses sight of common sense in any of his speculations; and when his philosophy does not consist entirely in its fair and vigorous application, it is always regulated and controuled by it in its application and result. No individual, perhaps, ever possessed a juster understanding, or was so seldom obstructed in the use of it by indolence, enthusiasm, or authority.

Dr. Franklin received no regular education; and he spent the greater part of his life in a society where there was no relish and no encouragement for literature. On an ordinary mind, these circumstances would have produced their usual effects, of repressing all sort of intellectual ambition or activity, and perpetuating a generation of incurious mechanics; but, to an understanding like Franklin's, they were peculiarly propitious, and we can trace back to them, distinctly, almost all the peculiarities of his intellectual character.

Regular education is unfavourable to vigour or originality of understanding. Like civilization, it makes society more intelligent and agreeable; but it levels the distinctions of nature. It strengthens and assists the feeble; but it deprives the strong of his triumph, and casts down the hopes of the aspiring. It accomplishes this, not only by training up the mind in a habitual veneration for authorities, but, by leading us to bestow a disproportionate degree of attention on studies that are only va-

luable as keys or instruments for the understanding, they come at last to be regarded as ultimate objects of pursuit; and the means of education are absurdly mistaken for its end.

How many powerful understandings have been lost in the dialectics of Aristotle! and of how much good philosophy are we daily defrauded, by the preposterous error of taking a knowledge of prosody for useful learning! The mind of a man, who has escaped this training, will at least have fair play. Whatever other errors he may fall into, he will be safe at least from their infatuations. If he thinks proper, after he grows up, to study Greek, it will be for some better purpose than to become acquainted with its dialects. His prejudices will be those of a man, and not of a schoolboy; and his speculations and conclusions will be independent of the maxims of tutors, and the oracles of literary patrons.

The consequences of living in a refined and literary community are nearly of the same kind with those of a regular education. There are so many critics to be satisfied, so many qualifications to be established, so many rivals to encounter, and so much derision to be hazarded, that a young man is apt to be deterred from so perilous an enterprize, and led to seek for distinction in some safer line of exertion. He is discouraged by the fame and the perfection of certain models and favourites, who are always in the mouths of his judges, and, 'under them, his genius is rebuked,' and originality repressed, till he sinks into a paltry copyist, or aims at distinction by extravagance and affectation. In such a state of society, he feels that mediocrity has no chance of distinction; and what beginner can expect to rise at once to excellence? He imagines that mere good sense will attract no attention; and that the manner is of much more importance than the matter, in a candidate for public admiration. In his attention to the manner, the matter is apt to be neglected; and, in his solicitude to please those who require elegance of diction, brilliancy of wit, or harmony of periods, he is in some danger of forgetting that strength of reason and accuracy of observation, by which he first proposed to recommend himself. His attention, when extended to so many collateral objects, is no longer vigorous or collected: the stream, divided into so many channels, ceases to flow either deep or strong; he becomes an unsuccessful pretender to fine writing, and is satisfied with the frivolous praise of elegance or vivacity.

These obstructions to intellectual originality are so powerful, that if Franklin had been bred in a college, he would probably have contented himself with expounding the metres of Pindar, and mixing argument with his port in the common room; and that if Boston had abounded with men of letters, he would never have ventured to come forth from his printing-house, or been driven back to it, at any rate, by the sneers of the critics, after the first publication of his essays in the Busy Body.

This will probably be thought exaggerated; but it cannot be denied that the contrary circumstances in his history had a powerful effect in determining the character of his understanding, and in producing those peculiar

habits of reasoning and investigation by which his writings are distinguished. He was encouraged to publish, because there was scarcely any one around him whom he could not easily excel. He wrote with great brevity, because he had not leisure for more voluminous compositions, and because he knew that the readers to whom he addressed himself were, for the most part, as busy as himself. For the same reason, he studied great perspicuity and simplicity of statement: his countrymen had no relish for fine writing, and could not easily be made to understand a deduction depending on a long and elaborate process of reasoning. He was forced, therefore, to concentrate what he had to say; and, since he had no chance of being admired for the beauty of his composition, it was natural for him to aim at making an impression by the force and clearness of his statements.

His conclusions were often rash and inaccurate, from the same circumstances which rendered his productions concise. Philosophy and speculation did not form the business of his life; nor did he dedicate himself to any particular study, with a view to exhaust and complete the investigation of it in all its parts, and under all its relations. He engaged in every interesting enquiry that suggested itself to him, rather as the necessary exercise of a powerful and active mind, than as a task which he had bound himself to perform. He cast a quick and penetrating glance over the facts and *data* that were presented to him; and drew his conclusions with a rapidity and precision that have not often been equalled: but he did not stop to examine the completeness of the *data* upon which he proceeded, nor to consider the ultimate effect or application of the principles to which he had been conducted. In all questions, therefore, where the facts upon which he was to determine, and the materials from which his judgment was to be formed, were either few in number, or of such a nature as not to be overlooked, his reasonings are for the most part perfectly just and conclusive, and his decisions unexceptionably sound; but where the elements of the calculation were more numerous and widely scattered, he has often been precipitate, and he has either been misled by a partial apprehension of the conditions of the problem, or has discovered only a portion of the truth which lay before him.

In all physical inquiries; in almost all questions of a particular and immediate policy; and in much of what relates to the practical wisdom and the happiness of private life, his views will be found to be admirable, and the reasoning by which they are supported most masterly and convincing. But on subjects of general politics, of abstract morality, and political economy, his notions appear to be more unsatisfactory and incomplete.

He seems to have wanted leisure, and, perhaps, inclination also, to spread out before him the whole vast premises of these extensive sciences, and scarcely to have had patience to hunt for his conclusions through so wide and intricate a region as that upon which they invited him to enter. He has been satisfied, therefore, on every occasion, with reasoning from a very limited view of the facts, and often from a particular instance: he has done all that sagacity and sound

sense could do with such materials; but it cannot excite wonder if he has sometimes overlooked an essential part of the argument, and often advanced a particular truth into the place of a general principle. He seldom reasoned on these subjects at all, without having some practical application of them immediately in view; and as he began the investigation rather to determine a particular case than to establish a general maxim, so he probably desisted as soon as he had relieved himself of the present difficulty.

There are not many among the thorough bred scholars and philosophers of Europe, who can lay claim to distinction in more than one or two departments of science or literature. The uneducated tradesman of America has left writings that call for our attention, in natural philosophy, in politics, in political economy, and in general literature and morality.

His labours in the department of *physics* were almost all suggested by views of utility in the beginning, and were, without exception, applied to promote those views in the end. His letters on *electricity* have been more extensively circulated than any of his other writings; and are entitled to more praise and popularity than they seem ever to have met with in Europe. Nothing can be more admirable than the luminous and graphical precision with which the experiments are narrated; the ingenuity with which they are projected; and the sagacity with which the conclusion is inferred, limited, and confirmed.

The most remarkable thing, however, in these, and, indeed, in the whole of his physical speculations, is the unparalleled simplicity and facility with which the reader is conducted from one stage of the enquiry to another. The author never appears for a moment to labour, or to be at a loss. The most ingenious and profound explanations are suggested, as if they were the most natural and obvious way of accounting for phenomena; and the author seems to value himself so little on his most important discoveries, that it is necessary to compare him with others, before we can form a just notion of his merits.

As he seems to be conscious of no exertion, he feels no partiality for any part of his speculations, and never seeks to raise the reader's idea of their importance, by any arts of declamation or eloquence. Indeed, the habitual precision of his conceptions, and his invariable practice of referring to specific facts and observations, secured him, in a great measure, both from those extravagant conjectures in which so many naturalists have indulged, and from the zeal and enthusiasm which seems so naturally engendered in their defence.

He was by no means averse to give scope to his imagination, in suggesting a variety of explanations of obscure and unmanageable phenomena; but he never allowed himself to confound these vague and conjectural theories with the solid results of experience and observation. In his meteorological papers, and in his observations on heat and light, there is a great deal of such bold and original suggestions; but the author evidently sets little value on them; and has no sooner disburdened his mind of the impressions from which they proceeded, than he seems to dismiss them entirely from his

consideration, and turns to the legitimate philosophy of experiment with unabated diligence and humility.

As an instance of this disposition, might be quoted a letter to the abbe Soulavie, on a new theory of the earth, which he proposes and dismisses, without concern or anxiety, in the course of a few sentences; though, if the idea had fallen on the brain of a European philosopher, it might have germinated into a volume of eloquence, like Buffon's, or an infinite array of paragraphs and observations, like those of Parkinson or Dr. Hutton.

All his physical papers are admirable for the clearness of the description, the felicity and familiarity of the illustrations, and the singular sagacity of the remarks with which they are interspersed. Such are the theory of whirlwinds and water-spouts, as well as the observations on the course of the winds and on cold. His paper called Maritime Observations is full of ingenuity and practical good sense; and the remarks on evaporation, and on the tides, most of which are contained in a series of letters to a young lady, are admirable, not merely for their perspicuity, but for the interest and amusement they are calculated to communicate to every description of readers. The remarks on fireplaces and smokey chimnies are infinitely more original, concise, and scientific than those of count Rumford; and the observations on the gulf stream afford the first example of just theory and accurate investigation, applied to that phenomenon.

Dr. Franklin has never made use of the mathematics in his investigation of the phenomena of nature; and though this may render it surprising that he has fallen into so few errors of importance, yet it helps in some measure to explain the unequalled perspicuity and vivacity of his expositions. An algebraist, who can work wonders with letters, seldom condescends to be much indebted to words, and thinks himself entitled to make his sentences obscure, provided his calculations be distinct. A writer who has nothing but words to make use of must make all the use he can of them: he cannot afford to neglect the only chance he has of being understood.

His political writings first raised him into public office and eminence, but will be least read or attended to by posterity. They may be divided into two parts: those which relate to the internal affairs and provincial differences of the American colonies, before their quarrel with the mother country; and those which relate to that quarrel and its consequences. The former are no longer in any degree interesting: the longest of them was published in 1759, under the title of a Historical Review of the Constitution of Pennsylvania, and was composed for the purpose of showing that the political privileges reserved to the founder of the colony had been illegally and oppressively used. The Canada pamphlet, written in 1760, for the purpose of pointing out the importance of retaining that colony at the peace, is composed with great force of reason, and in a style of extraordinary perspicuity. The same may be said of what are called the Albany papers, or the plan for a general political union of the colonies in 1754: and of a variety

of other tracts on the provincial politics of that day.

All these are worth preserving, both as monuments of Dr. Franklin's talents and activity, and as affording, in many places, very excellent models of strong reasoning and popular eloquence: but the interest of the subjects is now completely gone by; and the few specimens of general reasoning which we meet with serve only to increase our regret, that the talents of the author should have been wasted on such perishable materials.

There is not much written on the subject of the dispute with the colonies; and most of his papers on that subject are already well known to the public. His examination before the house of commons, in 1766, affords a striking proof of the extent of his information, the clearness and force of his *extempore* composition, and the steadiness and self-possession, which enabled him to display these qualities with so much effect upon such an occasion. His letters before the commencement of hostilities are full of grief and anxiety; but, no sooner did matters come to extremities, than he appears to have assumed a certain keen and confident cheerfulness, not unmixed with a seasoning of asperity, and more vindictiveness of spirit than perhaps became a philosopher.

The letters which passed between Dr. Franklin and lord Howe, when his lordship arrived off the the American coast with what were called the pacificatory proposals, in 1776, show not only the consideration in which the former was held by the noble commissioner, but contain a very striking and pathetic statement of the consequences to be dreaded from the perseverance of Great Britain in her schemes of compulsion.

None of Dr. Franklin's political writings, during the nine years that he resided as ambassador at the court of France, have yet been made public. Some of them must be highly interesting.

As to the merits of Franklin as a political economist, he is perfectly sound on many important and practical points; on the corn-trade, and the theory of money, for instance; and also on the more general doctrines, as to the freedom of commerce, and the principle of population. In the more elementary and abstract parts of the science, however, his views seem to have been less just and luminous. He is not very consistent or profound, in what he says of the effects of luxury; and seems to have gone headlong into the radical error of the *economistes*, when he maintains, that all that is done by manufacture is to embody the value of the manufacturer's subsistence in his work, and that agriculture is the only source from which a real increase of wealth can be derived. Another favourite position is, that all commerce is *cheating*, where a commodity, produced by a certain quantity of labour, is exchanged for another, on which more labour has been expended; and that the only *fair* price of any thing is some other thing requiring the same exertion to bring it to market. This is evidently a very narrow and erroneous view of the nature of commerce.

The fair price to the purchaser is, whatever he deliberately chuses to give, rather than go without the commodity; it is no matter to him, whether the seller bestowed much

or little labour upon it, or whether it came into his possession without any labour at all; whether it be a diamond, which he picked up, or a picture, at which they had been working for years. The commodity is not valued by the purchaser on account of the labour which is supposed to be embodied in it, but solely on account of certain qualities, which he finds convenient or agreeable; he compares the convenience and delight which he expects to derive from this object, with the convenience and delight which is afforded by the things asked in exchange for it; and if he find the former preponderate, he consents to the exchange, and makes a beneficial bargain. We have stated the case in the name of a purchaser, because, in barter, both parties are truly purchasers, and act on the same principles; and it is easy to show, that all commerce resolves itself ultimately into barter. There can be no unfairness in trade, except where there is concealment by the seller, either of the defects of the commodity, or of the fact that the purchaser may be supplied with it at a cheaper rate by another. It is a matter of *fact*, but not of *morality*, that the price of most commodities will be influenced by the labour employed in producing them. If they are capable of being produced in unlimited quantities, the competition of the producers will sink the price very nearly to what is necessary to maintain this labour; and the impossibility of continuing the production, without repaying that labour, will prevent it from sinking lower. The doctrine does not apply at all to cases where the materials, or the skill necessary to work them up, are scarce in promotion to the demand.

The author's speculations on the effects of paper-money seem also to be superficial and inaccurate. *Statistics* had not been carefully studied in the days of his activity; and, accordingly, we meet with a good deal of loose assumption, and sweeping calculation, in his writings. Yet he had a genius for exact observation and complicated detail; and probably wanted nothing but leisure, to have made very great advances in this branch of economy.

As a writer on morality and general literature, the merits of Franklin cannot be estimated properly, without taking into consideration the peculiarities in his early history and situation. He never had the benefit of any academical instruction, nor of the society of men of letters; his style was formed entirely by his own judgment and occasional reading; and most of his moral pieces were written while he was a tradesman, addressing himself to the tradesmen of his native city. We cannot expect, therefore, either that he should write with extraordinary elegance or grace; or that he should treat of the accomplishments, follies, and occupations of polite life. He had no great occasion, as a moralist, to expose the guilt and the folly of gaming or seduction; or to point a poignant and playful ridicule against the lighter immoralities of fashionable life. To the mechanics and traders of Boston and Philadelphia, such warnings were altogether unnecessary; and he endeavoured, therefore, with more appropriate eloquence, to impress on them the importance of indus-

try, sobriety, and economy, and to direct their wise and humble ambition to the attainment of useful knowledge and honourable independence.

That morality, after all, is certainly the most valuable, which is adapted to the circumstances of the greater part of mankind; and that eloquence is the most meritorious, that is calculated to convince and persuade the multitude to virtue. Nothing can be more perfectly and beautifully adapted to its object, than most of Dr. Franklin's compositions of this sort. The tone of familiarity, of good will, and homely jocularity; the plain and pointed illustrations; the short sentences, made up of short words; and the strong sense, clear information, and obvious conviction of the author himself, make most of his moral exhortations perfect models of popular eloquence; and afford the finest specimens of a style which has been but too little cultivated in a country, which numbers, perhaps, more than 100,000 readers among its tradesmen and artificers.

In writings which possess such solid and unusual merit, it is of no great consequence that the fastidious eye of a critic can discover many blemishes. There is a good deal of vulgarity in the practical writings of Franklin; and more vulgarity than was necessary for the object he had in view. There is something childish, too, in some of his attempts at pleasantry: his story of the Whistle, and his Parisian letter, announcing the discovery that the sun gives light as soon as he rises, are instances of this. The Soliloquy of an Ephemeris, however, is much better; and both that, and the Dialogue with the Gout, are executed with the lightness and spirit of genuine French compositions.

The Speech in the Divan of Algiers, composed as a parody on those of the defenders of the slave-trade, and the scriptural parable against persecution, are inimitable; they have all the point and facility of the fine pleasantries of Swift and Arbuthnot, with something more of directness and apparent sincerity.

The style of his letters, in general, is excellent. They are chiefly remarkable for great simplicity of language, admirable good sense and ingenuity, and an amiable and inoffensive cheerfulness, that is never overclouded or eclipsed.

There is something extremely amiable in old age, when thus exhibited, as in Franklin's letters, without querulousness, discontent, or impatience, and free, at the same time, from any affected or unbecoming levity. *There must be many more of his letters in existence than have yet been given to the public; and, from the tone and tenor of those which have already appeared, we are satisfied that they would be read with general avidity and improvement*.*

His account of his own life, down to the year 1730, has been in the hands of the public since 1790. It is written with great simplicity and liveliness, though it contains too many trifling details and anecdotes of obscure individuals. It affords a striking example of the irresistable force with which

* I wish the descendants of Dr. Franklin, in America, would take this hint. They have treasures of this sort of which a profitable use might be made.—E.

talents and industry bear upwards in society, as well as an impressive illustration of the substantial wisdom and good policy of invariable integrity and candour. It would be very useful reading for all young persons of unsteady principle, who have their fortunes to make or to mend in the world.

On the whole, the life and writings of Dr. Franklin afford a striking illustration of the incalculable value of a sound and well-directed understanding, and of the comparative uselessness of learning and laborious accomplishments. Without the slightest pretensions to the character of a scholar or a man of science, he has extended the bounds of human knowledge on a variety of subjects, which scholars and men of science had previously investigated without success; and has only been found deficient in those studies which the learned have generally turned from in disdain. Respect is due to scholarship and science; but the value of these instruments is apt to be overrated by their possessors; and it is a wholesome mortification, to show them that the work may be done without them.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE LATE MONARCHY OF PRUSSIA.

Whether the Prussian monarchy is ever destined to rise again, is a question which a few months may possibly determine. It has, however, made a great figure in the world during the last century; and though the monarchy, as a single body, may be annihilated, yet the land and people composing it will still remain. It may therefore be interesting and instructive to give a concise account of its actual condition on the eve of the present war. This account will have so far a connection with the present state of things, that it will inform us what it is which the French have overturned; what weight has been taken out of one scale, and, if the revolution should be permanent, what has been put into another. It will likewise afford us some insight into the real consequences of the present war in Europe, by showing the kind and degree of national prosperity and happiness which that war has destroyed, or at least suspended.

It may be proper to remark, that this account, taken from German statistical writers, places things in a much more flattering light than that in which they were formerly or are commonly exhibited. It is not in our power to detect or correct exaggerations, and things of this nature must be taken as they are found, till new and better evidence comes within our reach.

The Prussian territories in and out of Germany could not be rated at less than 75,000 square miles, an area about equal to the whole of England and Wales, added to the half of Scotland.

The climate, on the whole, is salubrious and mild, except in the eastern provinces, where the cold in winter is sometimes severe. The soil varies, but is in general fertile, and produces abundance of wheat, rye, barley, and oats; all sorts of pulse and garden fruits, besides timber, hemp, and flax. The cattle are indifferent, and the horses small, except those of East Prussia and Friesland.

The whole population may be reckoned nearly ten millions, of which

Prussia itself contains	4,000,000
Silesia	2,100,000
Brandenburg	1,300,000
Pomerania	700,000
Magdeburg, Halberstadt, &c.	900,000

and the unconnected states about one million: so that each English square mile has, on the average, a population of a hundred and thirty-three and a third persons, a degree of populousness somewhat inferior to that of England and France.

The population was rapidly increasing. The number of births considerably exceeded every year that of the deaths. In the year 1801, the surplus was 103,000; in 1802, 154,000; and in 1803, 138,000. The least populous provinces are Pomerania and New East Prussia. The most populous is Baireuth, or perhaps some circles in Silesia.

With regard to the population of the large towns, the principal are

Berlin, in Brandenburg, with	160,000
Warsaw, in the newly acquired part of Poland	65,000
Breslau, in Silesia	62,000
Konigsberg, in Prussia	57,000
Dantzig, in Prussian Poland	48,000
Magdeburg, in the duchy of the same name	33,000
Stettin, in Pomerania	18,600

Though agriculture be the principal employment of the nation, it is only of late that it has experienced extensive improvements: but, compared with English, Italian, or Flemish farming, it is yet in its infancy.

The principal manufactories were those of glass, looking-glasses, earthenware, china, tobacco and snuff, starch, Prussian blue, paper, linen, woollen cloth, cotton and silk stuffs, &c.; chiefly at Berlin, Breslau, Konigsberg, Potsdam, Halle, Magdeburg.

Trade was little understood. It was cramped by many prohibitions, restrictions, and monopolies of the crown, under the mistaken notion, that the obstructions which foreign commerce encounters contribute to render the inland trade more flourishing. Some manufactures were absolutely forced and supported by royal bounties. The situation of the Prussian dominions is, however, extremely favourable for commerce, as they communicate both with the Baltic and the North Sea. The principal sea-ports are Dantzig, Konigsberg, Elbing, Memel, Stettin, Colberg, and Emden.

Prussia exported annually

	Dollars.
Timber, to the amount of	1,000,000
Wheat, rye, and oats	8,500,000
Linens	6,00,0000
Woollen cloth	3,500,000

besides other articles of less importance.

Its principal importation consisted of

	Dollars.
Raw sugar, to the amount of	3,000,000
Coffee	2,500,000
Wine	1,750,000
Raw cotton and silk	3,500,000

But it is impossible to ascertain the balance of its trade, as one province exported articles which the other imported; and little reliance is to be placed on the custom-house lists, which often include articles previously imported.

Were it not for the many injudicious excise regulations, which throw numerous obstacles in its way, the transit trade might be considerable. There is a good in-

land navigation on the Memel, Pregel, Vistula, Oder, Spree, Havel, Elbe, Weser, and Ems; besides the Great and Little Frederic's canal in East Prussia, the former fourteen, the latter nearly five miles in length; the Iohannisburg canal, fifty-five miles long; the Bomberg canal; the Frederic William's canal, fourteen miles long; the Finow canal, of twenty-three miles; the Klodnitz canal, in Silesia, twenty-three miles long; the new Oder canal, and the canal of Plauen. But the roads are bad. Only within the last twenty years have they attracted the attention of government. A few good turnpike roads lead from Berlin to Potsdam, to Frankfort, and in part to Hamburg.

The productive capital may be estimated,

	Dollars.
In arable land, at about	555,000,000
Meadows and grass land	160,000,000
Forests	135,000,000
Gardens, orchards, vineyards	76,000,000
Mines	6,000,000
Fisheries	30,500,000
Game	12,500,000
	975,000,000

Its unproductive capital

In gold and silver plate, at	25,000,000
Cattle	150,000,000
Buildings	600,000,000
Household furniture	300,000,000
Total,	1,075,000,000

The circulating medium, or current coin, at 50,000,000

The annual income derived from the productive capital may be taken at 210,000,000

To which must be added, the produce of the national industry, or manufactured goods exported 10.000,000

Total, 220,000,000

But as the annual charges on reproduction, and the wages of labour and industry, which must be deducted from this sum, amount to 149,000,000 dollars, there remains a neat annual produce of 71,000,000 dollars. The annual income of every individual is only twenty-two dollars, the smallness of which sum sufficiently accounts for the frugality of the nation in general. There are, however, numbers of wealthy families, and very large capitals employed in trade, particularly at Dantzig, Breslau, and Berlin.

Arts and sciences flourished to a great degree; the schools and universities were excellent; and there reigned in Prussia a perfect toleration of all creeds and religious opinions. The morals of the people were less corrupted than in other countries; frugality and patriotism were the prevailing virtues: the latter in some places degenerated even into national pride. The laws were mild. In the whole extent of the Prussian dominions, the number of those who suffered capital punishment never exceeded fourteen in the course of a year. Every criminal is tried without the least expence to the prosecutor.

The kingly power was not restricted by known fundamental laws or constitutional assemblies; but in no state was the reign of

public opinion more despotic, and the restraints on sovereign power, which arise from popular habits and education, more rigorous and salutary. The legal privileges of particular classes and communities, and the equitable constitution and maxims of tribunals, made up, together, a system of genuine, rational liberty and security, such as few nations who call themselves politically free are able to exhibit.

The present, or late king shall we call him? has never abused his authority, and, by substituting to the needless luxury and pernicious magnificence of his father an economy equally removed from sordidness and profusion, he had re-established the equilibrium between the income and expenditure of the state. The annual revenue of the crown was about thirty millions of dollars.

The civil administration was confided to fifteen ministers, who formed the privy council; but acted each independently in his respective department, and were accountable to the king only.—Any, even the meanest, subject, who supposed himself aggrieved or oppressed, might apply directly to the king in writing, and was sure of an immediate investigation of his complaint.

The army cost annually eleven million of dollars. It consisted of fifty-eight regiments of infantry, of two battalions each; thirty grenadier battalions; fifty-seven deposit, or third battalions; twenty-four battalions of fusiliers, or light infantry; three battalions of chasseurs, beides the foot guards; thirteen regiments of cuirassiers, each of ten squadrons; two regiments of heavy dragoons, of ten squadrons each, and twelve regiments of five squadrons; ten regiments of hussars, or light dragoons, of ten squadrons each, besides the horse guards, a detached battalion of hussars, a corps of Towarczysz and horse chasseurs; four regiments and one battalion of artillery, fifteen companies of garrison artillery, and seven companies of horse artillery; besides four companies of miners, pontoniers, and a corps of engineers. The whole amounting to two hundred and fifty thousand men: commanded by three field-marshals, seven generals of infantry, seven of cavalry, thirty lieutenant-generals of infantry, sixteen of cavalry, and forty-five major-generals of infantry, and twenty-one of cavalry.

There is no difference between the peace and war establishment, except that in times of peace each regiment has its full complement of men during six or seven weeks only previous to the annual reviews, which take place at stated times. When these general reviews are over, the native Prussians are dismissed to their respective homes on furloughs, till the prospect of war demands their recal to the regiment, or till the next review. Every male subject in Prussia, who is of the requisite size, and does not belong to any of the privileged classes, is obliged to serve in the regiment of which his native place is the canton, or recruiting district. The whole country is liable to this military levy, except the towns of Berlin, Breslau, Potsdam, Magdeburg, Dantzig, and the nobility, clergy, public functionaries, Jews, Mennonites, and some manufacturers.

The number of privileged persons, together with their families, amounts to about two millions and a half. Some of the unconnected

provinces, as East Friesland, pay for their exemption from the military service. There are about 854,932 families for the recruiting of the infantry; 135,565 for the heavy dragoons; 84,996 for the cuirassiers; and 53,775 for the artillery. But that portion of men who continue in actual service all the year long, is procured from recruits raised in other parts of Germany not belonging to Prussia, or from volunteers out of the privileged towns. The service of these men is limited to eight years, and they receive a handsome bounty proportioned to their age and size. The hussars, or light dragoons, have no cantons; but, owing to the martial spirit of the nation, and to the prospect of advancement, they have always more than their complement. The fusiliers are likewise without cantons; they get those men who are not sufficiently tall for the infantry and grenadiers. As the Prussian nobility is not rich, noblemen only are employed as officers in the infantry and heavy cavalry; but in the artillery and hussar regiments, plebeians of good education, or who have distinguished themselves by their good behaviour, are also advanced to officer's places. In general, the young noblemen in Prussia enter the army at twelve or thirteen years of age. They are standard or colour-bearers, with the rank of free corporal only, for the space of three or four years, when they are made ensigns or cornets in rotation. There is an exception, however, in favour of those who are educated at the military school: they are always placed as officers immediately on leaving the academy.

The pay of the men in the infantry is about a dollar and a half per month, and two pound of bread per day; in the cavalry, about two dollars twenty cents per month, and bread. The subaltern officers in the infantry have about a third of a dollar per day; but in time of war they generally dine at the table of the captain, or chief of the company in which they serve. As the annual income derived from a company consists in part of the pay of those men who are permitted to return to their homes after the reviews, it is very considerable in time of peace, not less than fourteen or sixteen hundred dollars a-year; but, during war, a captain's pay hardly amounts to five hundred dollars.

Promotion in the Prussian army is as gradual and regular as in the English navy.

Merit is seldom rewarded by any extraordinary advancement, except in particular cases. The most common recompense is knighthood. There are at present no less than four hundred and fifty officers in the Prussian army who are knights of the military order of *merit*, the insignia of which are a small enamelled star, suspended at a narrow white-edged black riband worn about the neck. General officers are rewarded with the orders of the red and black eagle, the latter of which confers as high honour as the order of the garter in England. Frederic the great erected statues to the most eminent warriors of his time in a public square at Berlin.

The fiscal administration of Prussia was extremely simple. Every subject knew exactly how much, at what time, and where he had to pay his contribution. No extraordinary taxes were levied; the surplus of the annual revenue

was amply sufficient for uncommon exigencies, and to carry on a war of a few years. The only difference between the war and peace establishment was the greater consumption of men, the uninterrupted personal service of the enrolled, and the citizens performing military duty in the inland towns.

The police in general was good; the provision for the poor excellent; and the administration of justice much improved. Court martials were conducted on the same plan as in England, except that there is a judge advocate attached to each regiment, who is called *auditor*.

The foreign affairs were managed by two of the ministers of state, and a certain number of counsellors of legation.

The present war between France and Prussia began in October, 1806. In the ensuing two months the Prussian armies were destroyed, and all the territory but a part of the ancient kingdom of Prussia was completely subdued. The latter province was saved only by the interposition of the Russian armies, with whom the French have been for some months contending.

The consequences to be drawn from this great and rapid revolution, with regard to the real power and force of the monarchy, are very dubious and uncertain. Whether the strength of Prussia has been hitherto overrated; whether the event be merely owing to certain casualties of war, impossible to foresee or prevent; to Prussian weakness and treachery; or to the irresistible superiority of the French, we are unable to decide. The two following facts, however, are undisputed, and may lead to important inferences: first, the Prussian forces at Jena amounted, according to the French, to 150,000; according to the Prussians, only to 95,000; in either case, a very small proportion of what is commonly stated as the standing army of that kingdom: secondly, several of the strongest fortresses in Europe, well garrisoned and provisioned, surrendered to the French without or with merely a show of resistance. The effects of this conquest have already been dreadful to the people. The suspension of business, and the enormous pecuniary exactions of the conquerors, must have occssioned infinite distress and general poverty.

SKETCH OF THE PRESENT STATE OF POLAND, BY AN ENGLISH TRAVELLER, AFTER A RESIDENCE IN IT OF TWO YEARS.

Dantzic is situated on the Vistula, in an immense plain or marsh, about four miles from the Baltic. Its population is, as commonly stated, 36,000. It is regularly and strongly fortified. Its circumference, within the fortifications, is about four miles. The eastern and western entrances, which are the principal, are joined by the *lange gasse*, or long street, which passes nearly through the centre of the town. This street is by no means uniformly built, nor of an equal width throughout; it consists rather of two or three different streets, running one into the other. The streets cross one another at right angles; those parallel with the long street are the widest and best built. Some few of these have

also rows of trees on each side. Many of the others are rather lanes than streets; the whole are paved, but none of them with flags. The exterior form of the houses in this town is singular with us, but seems common in this part of the world. The houses commonly present a narrow front; and appear as if the gable ends were turned towards the street. The opposite sides of the roof, however, do not converge in straight lines, and terminate in a point; but deviate into various ornamental curvatures, and finally terminate in rounded summits, similarly to what may be observed over the windows of some old halls in England.

On the west, immediately without the moat, arise heights which completely command the town. One of these little hills is as conveniently situated for an enemy, as if artificially thrown up for his purpose. On the second partition of Poland, in 1793, when the king of Prussia usurped the sovereignty of Dantzic, his first object was to obtain possession of this height, whence he overawed the town.

The trade of Dantzic has been said to be, for some years, on the decline; yet a new custom-house has been lately erected, far more capacious than the former one: besides, the harbour at Fair-water has been enlarged and rendered more commodious.

The prevalent religion at Dantzic, as throughout Prussia, is the Lutheran; though there are several catholic churches, one of which is of considerable magnitude, and adorned, as usual, with a variety of splendid monuments and fine paintings. The largest Lutheran church is still more capacious, but totally without ornament. The difference in this respect is very striking, if we go immediately from one to the other.

Religion does not appear to be much in fashion at Dantzic. Both in the Lutheran and in catholic churches, the congregation consist chiefly of peasants and the lowest classes of the people. The merchants are, in general, professed unbelievers; and in few towns in Europe does infidelity appear so widely diffused among uneducated and illiterate people. I was told by a merchant, who seemed very solicitous that I should consider him of the class of gentlemen, that it was *ungenteel* to go to church, and that few but the vulgar, particularly the peasants, would be found zealous frequenters of it.

The places of public amusement are more frequented. Very lately a new theatre has been built here; which, agreeably to the custom of the continent, is always open on Sundays. The scenery is tolerable, though the general appearance is heavy and inelegant. The pit has no seats, except a few near the music-box: the greater part of it serves as a sort of parade for loungers.

The other Sunday amusements, during the summer, are rope-dancing, tumbling, &c.; to which may be added, the visiting of public gardens, where you are regaled with coffee, punch, &c., and the gayness of the scene is heightened by a band of music. But the most celebrated tea-garden is in a village, about three miles west of the town. The road to this village runs, for two miles out of the three, in a straight line between a double row of lofty trees;

and between the rows on each side is a walk ten or twelve feet wide, completely overshadowed by the arching of the opposite branches. In this village, and its vicinity, many of the merchants of Dantzic have country residences. I have mentioned this place, chiefly because it affords many picturesque and beautiful scenes; and because, from the adjoining heights there is an extensive prospect of the whole surrounding country. On the north, we have a view of the Baltic; of the bay of Dantzic, its bottom adorned with forests of pine; of the harbour and shipping at Fair-water, with the vessels passing to and fro between that and the town. To the east is the city of Dantzic, with its walls and towers; from which, on the south and east, stretches a fertile plain, in appearance of immeasureable extent. On the west, the prospect is completed by the adjacent woodlands.

The vast marsh which stretches out from Dantzic for an extent of forty miles, is of singular fertility. It is cultivated partly in corn, and partly in pasturage. The farm-houses are good, and the barns uncommonly capacious. Hence this town is abundantly supplied with excellent shambles of meat, as well as corn; and, as it is somewhat cheaper here than in England, the masters of English trading-vessels often chuse to take in their sea-stores at this place, rather than in their own country. Through this plain winds the Vistula, discharging itself into the Baltic at the bottom of Fair-water, about four miles below Dantzic. This river is so swelled in the spring by the melting of the winter's snow, that its stream has been confined by two prodigious banks, which seem to commence at the south-eastern extremity of the marsh, extending downwards through a distance of at least twenty or thirty miles, and gradually disappearing as the river approaches the sea. These banks are nearly a mile asunder, though the river itself is rarely a quarter of a mile wide. They are, at the least, twenty feet in perpendicular height; are broad enough at the top for two carriages to pass without difficulty, and at the base are proportionally extended. The river is passed here, and in various other places, by a boat capable of containing two coaches and four in succession, and two abreast, with a number of persons besides. The ends of the boat are adapted to a small pier at the side, to which when the boat is lashed, carriages, &c., are easily driven into it.

During the winter, most of the streams throughout Poland are crossed on the ice, which is commonly covered with snow. In some places indeed, which are comparatively few, there are bridges of boats, and on piles, of course all of wood.

Soon after crossing the Vistula, at the eastern extremity of the plain of Dantzic, the country assumes that appearance which, with slight variations, it universally retains through Poland. Having described, therefore, the appearances of an extent of thirty or forty miles, we may be considered as having described the whole region. The surface is slightly uneven, but not so sufficiently to interrupt the view towards the farthest possible horizon. Hence, though Poland is a flat country, it is not a perfect

plain, as has been sometimes represented. Its surface undulates, but never rises into hills, except in a few places. The Carpathian mountains, which separate it from Hungary, do not form a proper exception to this general appearance. The town of Lemberg, however, is situated in a hilly district; though the hills are too stoney, too little wooded and covered with grass, to exhibit a single specimen of the picturesque. There are a few agreeable scenes. The vicinity of Cracow indeed presents others still more worthy of attention: but neither of these towns is many miles distant from the above mountains.

The traveller sometimes finds himself in an expanse of surface, almost without a house, a tree, or any single object large enough to attract his notice. Soon, however, are descried the skirts of some vast forest fringing the distant horizon; and on entering it, we proceed for eight or ten miles, winding with the road through lofty pines, and firs, precluded from the sight of all objects but trees and shrubs. Sometimes, in the midst of a forest, we meet with a small spot of ground of ten or twenty acres, cleared and cultivated; its sides prettily fenced by the green surrounding woods. Sometimes a small lake is found thus situated, its borders ornamented in a similar manner: and these in general are the most pleasing scenes which Poland furnishes. These forests in some places are fifteen, and even twenty miles, in all directions. Of an estate belonging to a certain nobleman, containing about fifty square miles, nearly one half is computed to be forest.

It is not easy to traverse these vast wildernesses, without being filled with a sentiment of awful admiration! Their frequent and deep shade conspires with their never-ending extent to suggest an idea of infinity which approaches the sublime; and sublime indeed would be the prospect, if only a solitary mount peered above the tops of the trees, that the eye might be permitted to rove unimpeded over a world of green and delightful foliage.

During the summer-heat, the forests afford a very grateful shelter to the traveller. In winter, the scene is totally changed. Every bough and branch is heavily laden with congealed snow, and the ever-greens are completely hid beneath this white and universal mantle. The pines lift their lofty heads in the cold, clear air, huge and still, as giants enchanted into pillars of salt. There are some lakes far more extensive than those just mentioned. The Vistula itself, from the great increase of its waters in the spring, is expanded, in certain places, into a sort of lake. There are also occasional bogs, and impassable morasses.

At very distant intervals are found open plains of some extent, affording rich pasturage. The richest are those contiguous to the Vistula, and which are periodically overflowed by that river. Such are those in the neighbourhood of Warsaw, and which supply that town with good butcher's meat. These pasture-lands, in general so thinly scattered, are said to be more frequent in Lithuania.

On the skirts of a forest, more rarely in the midst, are commonly found the villages; though they sometimes appear wholly unsheltered in a wide extended plain, as

above described. A Polish village consists of a collection of miserable huts, from eight or ten to forty or fifty, all of wood, and rudely covered with straw and turf. A collection of the very worst species of huts found in some parts of Scotland would be a favourable specimen. These hovels afford so indifferent a protection against the rigours of the winter, that their wretched inhabitants absolutely stop up the vents of the chimnies, preferring to be half smothered with smoke, to exposing themselves to the piercing cold. The villages are thinly scattered. They are situated most frequently within four or five miles of each other, and are often less distant; but I have sometimes travelled for ten, and even more miles, without seeing a single house of any kind. In forests, they seldom appear at all.

The first remove from the extreme wretchedness of the villages, are the little towns. These are also of wood; but the houses are larger, and better constructed; they are also differently arranged. The general plan of a Polish town is very simple. There is commonly a pretty large square, with the town-house in the centre. This place, however, is sometimes occupied by the most considerable inn. On the sides is often a sort of piazza, if, contrary to Virgil's shepherd, we must describe small things by great, particularly in the wooden towns, under which bread, cakes, trinkets, &c., are exposed on small standings to sale. At each angle is usually an entrance, lined on each side, for a short distance, with houses. The wooden houses, whether in town or country, have rarely, if ever, any thing but the roof above the ground floor. It must be a pretty good town which contains two thousand inhabitants. There are many dignified with this appellation, where the people cannot exceed two or three hundred.

This general plan is extended to a large proportion of the better sort of towns, to those which are built of brick. These are usually situated in a plain, at some distance from a forest, and in the vicinity, or even in the midst, of some morass; partly from the convenience of procuring brick with facility, and partly, as it may be supposed, to render them more difficult of access to an enemy. From the scarcity of stone-quarries in Poland, we rarely meet with houses built of stone. At Warsaw there are many; at Lemberg there are others: but there are quarries in the neighbourhood. The brick-walls are always stuccoed, or rather rough-cast; there is not an instance in which bricks appear, except from dilapidation; it is considered as vulgar; but as this notion cannot prevail universally, the custom probably originated in its more effectually guarding them from the cold. Most of the towns which are not of wood, are fortified, or rather *have been so*, but many of the fortifications seem calculated rather to amuse than resist an enemy.

Warsaw, situated on the right bank of the Vistula, is an irregularly built town. On entering it by the wooden bridge from the opposite suburb of Praga, you rise a little; otherwise, the town itself, as well as the surrounding country, is flat. It is remarkable, that it has no square nor any regular street. Some of the best streets are adorned with stately palaces, which in two or three instances

approach to magnificence. These, for the most part, are now deserted by their former inhabitants; they have been suffered to grow out of repair; some of the fronts exhibit a half-ruinous appearance, and high grass flourishes in the court-yards. Several of them have been sold by their princely and noble possessors. The nobles, chagrined and disgusted at their political annihilation, have generally abandoned their ancient metropolis, which, for its elegant voluptuousness, was stiled, in the times of its prosperity, the *little Paris*. Instead of passing the winter at Warsaw, therefore, they now spend it either in retirement on their estates, at the courts of their respective governments, or in foreign countries.

Immediately contiguous to these princely palaces, are commonly seen houses which are quite ordinary, often wretched; forcing on the mind the unwelcome contrast of riches and poverty, grandeur and meanness.

The population of Warsaw, since the partition, has been on the decline; one cause of which undoubtedly is, its desertion by so many of the nobles. It is now rated at no more than 50,000; whereas it has been, as they assert, nearly double that number. How different, at first sight, is this city from the active, bustling town of Dantzic. Here all is flat and joyless as the face of the country, of which it is the faded capital.

The suburb of Praga consists of little more than a considerable collection of village huts. Some of the houses, it is true, have a decent appearance; but a large majority are of the former kind. The suburbs, indeed, of every subordinate town are mere collections of such hovels.

The city of Cracow is spoken of by the Poles as in general better built than Warsaw, and as far superior to it in situation, which is among hills and woodland scenery. It is famous for its wonderful salt-mines. There is, however, a slight touch of the *magic* pencil in the romantic description of Mr. Coxe.

Lemberg, in Gallitia, is probably the most considerable town after Cracow. Its population is said to be above 30,000, though this seems questionable from the comparative extent of the town. It is, however, evidently on the increase. According to custom, it has a large square, which is at once the best residence and the market-place.

Lublin again is another town of some note, of which the population is probably about 5 or 6000. Like Warsaw, it has no square, forming another exception to the general plan; it consists merely of a long thoroughfare street, with a few others irregularly disposed. The buildings are indifferent, compared to those in towns of similar extent in more civilized countries.

The soil of Poland, except the few plains and morasses, is almost entirely of sand; or, if it varies, it is to a light loam, in which the sand greatly predominates. Hence its cultivation, in the manner it is there conducted, is attended with little trouble and expence. We nowhere see more than a ploughman with his plough and a single pair of small bullocks, not bigger than English steers, to produce a fallow. There is scarcely such a thing as manure to be seen, and the produce is proportionally small.

The average crop is six to one of the quantity sown: of these six parts, two only are calculated to go to market, the rest being appropriated to defraying the expences of cultivation and living.

The agriculture of Poland is susceptible of great improvement. It is but just to acknowledge, however, that the Prussian division exhibits various marks of increased attention to this important object. The lands, in a few instances, begin to be enclosed: for, in general, the whole country is without any enclosure; the stones, which are often abundant, are collected into large heaps, in order to be conveyed away; and here and there is to be seen a small quantity of manure. The villages, too, are in some places partially rebuilt, and the houses more firmly constructed. In particular, the farm-house of a village towers more conspicuously above the rest, is sometimes built of brick, and white-washed. There are instances of this in Austrian Poland, but they are far less frequent. The improvements in this division, though some have unquestionably taken place, are less obvious; and consist rather in the general benefits of greater security, arising from the protection of a regular government.

The lands are commonly let out into large farms; and, in some instances, farmed by the proprietor, who is almost always a noble. The latter mode is rarely resorted to, except, perhaps, with respect to a small quantity of land lying contiguous to the country-seat of the possessor; for, as every thing must be done by agents, these consume and even pilfer too large a portion of the profits. A Polish farm, of any considerable extent, commonly consists of several thousand acres, including open land and forest; and the annual rent amounts to four or five hundred ducats (about a thousand or fifteen hundred dollars). Its value, however, is not estimated by the number of acres, but by the number of villages within its bounds: for, as the population of Poland bears a small proportion to its vast extent, the first enquiry of a farmer about to contract for a farm is, how is it peopled? The population of the country is universally allowed to be very inadequate to the proper cultivation of the soil. The territory of a nobleman, the extent of which I ascertained with some exactness, is about five thousand square miles, which produces an income of about 100,000 ducats, or 250,000 dollars: this gives only 50 dollars a year for every 640 acres.

Poland produces almost every species of grain, though wheat is the principal. Rye is also very abundant; of which the bread of the peasantry consists almost entirely. The general market is Dantzic, where farmers from the interior of the country reside, during the summer, for six weeks or two months together, or till they have sold the corn they have conveyed thither. Heavy imposts, however, have been laid by the Prussian government on all articles transported on the Vistula.

Immense floats of timber are seen, now and then, moving slowly down the stream: for the current is not rapid, except in the spring. On these floats are constructed small cabins, which serve for the habitation of the pilot, or *floatman*, during his long voyage. The ditch of the fortifications at Dantzic is so stuffed with pieces of tim-

ber, though not wattled together like the floats, that in some places you may almost cross, stepping from one to the other. The Dantzickers, before their visit from the French, must have cleared their ditch.

The cattle are in general very small, and commonly very poor when killed for the table. Even at the best houses, the beef is frequently larded with bacon. The veal is somewhat better. Mutton seems to be the most rare: I have seldom seen a flock of sheep. Not only the cattle in general, but the cows are driven about in large herds in summer, to collect a scanty sustenance among the stubble. Hence, a Polish cow, from its diminutive size and its poor fare, probably gives not more than a third of the milk yielded by an English cow. I have counted forty, fifty, and even sixty cows, in these *pastoral* dairies. The cheese is usually poor and hard. The pigs fare in like manner; large droves of them are every where to be seen in the stubble. The best pasturage, exclusive of the plains, is found on the occasional green patches in the forests. In winter, the cattle are stalled, the ground being covered with snow. Poultry abounds everywhere, from the general abundance of corn.

The Polish horses are a small but hardy race. The horses of the hussars are rarely if ever above fourteen hands high; but they are spoken of in terms of high admiration as war-horses, and, from their activity in military manœuvres and evolutions, as more serviceable than the heavy English horses. The common post-horses, too, though very low and ill-shaped, will yet travel at a rate little inferior to that of English mail-coaches. English horses are in great request; but though the nobles have some good ones, the jockies contrive to impose upon them many which were probably the refuse of the English markets. Scarcely a horse arrives in Poland, without a cost of at least a thousand dollars, including the purchase money and the expence of transportation. They have some, indeed, of which the original purchase money was double that sum, or even more.

Of wild animals, the roe-buck furnishes the most frequent article of food. When dressed, its flesh is of a dark colour, like that of the hare, but more tender and savoury. It makes an admirable dish. There are hares, too, in sufficient abundance. Wild fowl is also plentiful.

The principal savage animals are wolves and wild boars, the hunting of which constitutes a favourite diversion with the Poles in winter. Both of these may be considered as common, particularly the former.

A horse happened to die, and the carcase was dragged to the verge of a forest, not more than a quarter of a mile from the stable. Some persons with guns lay in ambush, in the expectation that wolves would appear. Several came in a short time; but the men unluckily missed their aim, and the animals were afterwards more cautious, though the carcase soon disappeared, in all probability without much aid from dogs.

On another occasion, a wolf had the audacity to enter a public-house in the day-time; but, as the house was fortunately crowded with peasants, they succeeded in killing him.

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In very severe winters, a whole pack of wolves will sometimes attack a carriage as it passes through a forest. The horses are commonly the first and most desired victims; though an anecdote, which commemorates the generous resolution of a servant, proves that they occasionally give this uncoveted preference to men.

A gentleman was travelling, with his valet-de-chambre, in a sledge through a forest, when they were suddenly attacked by a number of wolves, who leaped furiously at the carriage. The servant, who instantly saw that one of them at least must be sacrificed, exclaimed, Protect my wife and children; and instantly leaped into the midst of them. His master drove wildly on, and escaped.

The kitchen-garden in Poland is not very abundantly furnished. Their dinners have commonly an inconsiderable proportion of vegetables. Potatoes are rare; and, when produced, are served in slices, having been browned and basted under a roasting piece of meat. They eat cabbage only with boiled beef. It is always ill-boiled, and never looks well.—Carrots are also sometimes seen, and sour-crout is not uncommon; but sallad-herbs constitute the most frequent and agreeable vegetables both in winter and summer. On the whole, there is a great deficiency of vegetable food at their meals; a deficiency which is supplied by copious draughts of a light beer, which in a moderate quantity is wholesome enough, though perhaps not a very good succedaneum for English porter. There is also a weak Rhenish wine, a small decanter of which is placed near each person, and which is always drunk mixed with water, which it slightly acidulates. The stronger wines are chiefly from Hungary, a red sort of which distantly resembles port; but the best sort is of a light colour. The highest price is not more than twenty-two cents a bottle. This last is frequently kept a great number of years. I have myself drunk wine of this species, which had been kept a hundred years. It is then very strong; and no liquor can be more fine, mellow, and delicious. When new, it is somewhat harsh. The French wines, too, are not uncommon, though not in ordinary use. English bottled porter, likewise, is to be had in all the large towns, and even at the best public-houses on the most frequented roads; at the high price, however, of about forty-four cents a bottle; and, from having passed the sea, it is commonly even of a superior flavour to bottled porter in England.

The most abundant fruits are perhaps raspberries and strawberries. There are few apples or pears, and no cider nor perry. The genuine liquors of the country are beer, and a sort of spirit resembling whisky, usually converted into a cordial by the infusion of hot spices. The beer met with at the public-houses is always so weak and flat as to be scarcely potable. The spirit is also wretched stuff; but the *liqueurs*, which are common and of various sorts, are very fine. On the roads we sometimes get a little mead, which is always very bad; as well as an ordinary French wine.

The climate of Poland, in the different seasons, passes through a wide range of temperature. In the depth of winter, Fahren-

heit's thermometer fluctuates between 16 and 24° below the freezing point. I speak of a situation about seventy English miles to the south-east of Warsaw, but the statement is also applicable, or nearly, to that city. The winter of the latter end of 1804, and the beginning of 1805, was unusually long and severe. It lasted for seven months; during six of which, the whole face of the country, land, water, trees, and houses, was completely covered with snow. It is curious and wonderful to behold all nature thus literally a *blanc;* thus robed, so many months, in a sheet of universal whiteness! If there be any wind, it blows keenly, not forcibly, from the north or north-east; more commonly, it is perfectly still, and so clear, than one can almost *see* the cold: the sun, the while, pours his glistening glory on the subject snow, impenetrable as a rock to his beams. This is the season which the Poles admire; this is the time for the *diversion* of the sleigh. In this weather, they will travel hundreds of miles, undaunted either by the cold or the wretched accommodations sometimes to be met with; and even with less ceremony than Englishmen occasionally make to travel a hundred miles, at the same season of the year, in their own mild climate. When on a journey, the sledges go at the rate of seventy or eighty miles a day; and often proceed by night, as well as by day. All sorts of carriages are so contrived as to be placed on sledges, as occasion requires. A series of coaches, chariots, and other carriages thus situated (as when a family travels), furnishes a very odd spectacle to a person unaccustomed to such things; and what seems still more strange, is the very circumstance of meeting a number of handsome carriages and genteel travellers in such a dreary wilderness of frost and snow as a Polish winter exhibits! The traces of elegant arts, or any appearances of polished society, is so little in unison with surrounding objects, that it is like the effect of enchantment.

The winters most dreaded by the Poles are rainy winters, or those in which rain alternates with frost. The roads, whether from the melting of the abundant snow, or from their being glazed with subsequent frost become almost impassable. During the general thaw at the commencement of spring, even Poland is at no time so little desireable as a place of residence. We are told, that during the present winter, 1806 and 1807, the rains have been continual. To those who know what must be the physical condition of things in such a season, the grievous mortality which is said to have afflicted the French army, can be matter neither of astonishment nor doubt. Nor can I well conceive, how two such vast armies as the Russian and French can at all subsist in winter, for any time, in this wild region: at least, within such a distance of each other as to be capable of any ex[illegible]nsive and effective operations. They must speedily produce a famine over a space a hundred miles in diameter. The wretchedness and mutual remoteness of the towns and villages; the habitually coarse and meagre fare of their inhabitants, such as would half-starve a *poor* man in England; the scantiness and leanness of their cattle, all conspire to ren-

der the continual and healthful subsistence of a large army almost miraculous. Accordingly, we are told that the French actually suffer great distress, not merely from the rigours of the climate, but from a want of the necessary supply of provisions.

The Russians have manifestly the advantage in both these respects: they are comparatively in a mild climate, and have been habituated from childhood to the coarse food they must use in Poland: they are *case-hardened*, therefore, against all contingencies of the country but famine. The French, on the contrary, bred in a more favoured clime, have not merely enemies in arms to contend with. Their southern constitutions must require time to adapt themselves to their new circumstances, and have to repel the constant attacks of physical hostility. Fortunately for them, the spring is approaching, when we may expect more effective operations.

Spring, in Poland, is by far the most agreeable season of the year; though her smiling countenance borrows a portion of its charms from its contrast with the stern aspect of winter. No sooner is the face of the earth unveiled to the view of the sun, than vegetation proceeds, as usual in cold climates, with great rapidity. The forests are soon covered with verdure. The air, too, is gentle and bland; and all is calm and peaceful, while nature is arraying herself in her summer-robes. The progress of spring is gradual, and the more delightful on that account. There is never a juxtaposition of the extremes of heat and cold, as in England. The Polish summer is hotter than the English: the thermometer is usually at from 65 to 75°. This is partly owing to the sandy soil, but chiefly, no doubt, to the continental position of the country.

In passing through a spot of ground, green with the rising corn, or yellowing towards harvest; where the view is confined by the skirtings of a forest, and embellished by its varied foliage; though there is a total absence of objects necessary to constitute a picture, yet the traveller, from the general prospect of plenty and of agreeable colours, is disposed to be pleased. But he proceeds not far, before the appearance of some miserable hovels deforms the fair scene; or the sight of human beings, in the persons of the wretched boors, the faint resemblances of men, instantly breaks the charm of his reveries.

PRESENT STATE OF SWITZERLAND.

The following brief sketch of the present state of Switzerland is by an anonymous traveller, and was originally published in a British periodical work, but is so highly interesting that we have ventured to present it again to American readers in this place.

Lucerne, Sept. 25, 1805.

On the morning of the 3d of September, 1798, three barges full of French troops were observed coming from Hergysweil. They were repulsed with loss by the batteries erected at Kersitten. Schauenbourg then planted batteries against Stanzstadt and Kersitten; but the Underwaldeners blocked up the passage with posts and the trunks of trees, some of which are still standing in the

water. For seven successive days the French made fruitless efforts to gain the opposite banks; but their numbers, however superior, were always greatly diminished, without effecting their purpose. In the mean time the people of Schwytz, who had been hitherto spectators of these events, felt themselves animated by the same intrepid ardour, and expressed the wish to march to their aid, but were prevented by the government, who occupied every pass on the side of Underwalden. Notwithstanding, two hundred volunteers got possession of the great banners belonging to the canton, overpowered the centinels, and proceeded to Underwalden.

On the 9th, at five in the morning, the enemy renewed the attack with sixteen thousand men, at six different points, by land and by water. On the lake they had above thirty boats, seven or eight of which were sunk by the artillery of the Underwaldeners.

The column coming from Hergyswyl suffered considerably from the fire of the sharp-shooters, and could not advance until another column, after having overpowered the small party stationed by the pass at Brunigg, were enabled to fall in the rear of the Underwaldeners occupying the bank of the lake, which they did not, however, effect before two in the afternoon. Near Winkelried, where the enemy had penetrated over the mountains called Ribenen, eighteen of the finest females died contesting every inch of ground. A young girl, the most beautiful and athletic in Stanzthal, was violated by a party of ruffians, who left her apparently lifeless; but she recovering soon after, snatched up her club, and killed some of her brutal ravishers. The Underwaldeners, now reduced to the number of twelve hundred, and finding themselves in danger of being surrounded, retreated to the mountains, over the bodies of their enemies, whom they slew in a treble proportion, and there maintained a position from whence they could not be dislodged. In this retreat two hundred women, armed with pitchforks and clubs, preferring death to infamy, were all cut to pieces. The Schwitzers, after having performed wonders of valour in support of the common cause, fought their way back to their homes, carrying with them their banners, for the preservation of which four of them voluntarily sacrificed their lives.

The French, who purchased this advantage with the loss of six thousand men, added cruelty to cowardice. They set dwelling-houses and every thing destructible on fire. Flames, murder, and plunder were to be seen on all sides. The cries and lamentations of the living were mixed with the groans of the dying. The helpless and infirm, men, women, and children, were alike the victims of their savage fury. The closing day, which should have terminated the butchery, was prolonged through the hours of the night by the flames of those peaceful habitations where care had been hitherto unknown.

Impressed with veneration for these people, from the above circumstances, related to me by a survivor on the spot, I pursued my melancholy way into the canton of Underwalden, witnessing every where some half-burnt dwelling, some forsaken and desolate farm-yard, or some open space still covered with the ashes of the

materials there consumed. From Stanzstadt I proceeded to Rotyloch, where the fall of the Muhlbach, beyond the new paper-mill, affords an impressive spectacle. Here the French collected together, after the battle, their monstrous number of dead whom they lost at Rotzberg, and, filling the building with them, set it on fire. The miller, who had some days before saved his effects, and taken no part in the battle, has since found means of raising a new mill. In half an hour I reached Stanz from this place. On my way I reached the ruins of an old castle, and those of Arnold von Winkelried's chapel, destroyed, alas! by the *friends of liberty*. It was in the very place where this ruinous chapel stands, that an Ulderwaldener related to me, how he and his countrymen, seeing the fate that awaited them, had devoted themselves to death for their country. All were assembled by the alarm-bell, the thunder of the cannon, or the sound of the horn. The men came armed in rank and file: the women stood opposite to them with clubs, sticks, and scythes. In the mean time the arrival of two hundred Schwitzers, who attached themselves to their party, awakened universal joy. Silence being restored, the whole army joined in singing solemn hymns, men and women alternately.

The number of dwellings consumed at Stanzstadt, and in the district of Stanz, is reckoned at 688. Part are risen again out of the ashes; but every thing reminds me still of those unhappy days. At Stanz I was shown the grave in the church-yard which holds the bodies of eighty women, children, and old men, who were murdered in the moment of their flying into the church to implore God's mercy; and on the altar the hole of the ball which killed the priest as he was officiating. In the open space before the church stands Arnold Winkelried, on the pump, cut in stone. The sword of this statue was taken off, and his shield painted with the new Helvetic colours. A little farther on I perceived the shell of a house burnt down, belonging to a family of the name of Kayser, who, on the 10th of September, were all murdered, after the fury of the battle had subsided; and opposite to these walls I read, over the entrance into the church-yard, the words *Dominus videt* in large glittering letters. The Helvetic Directory had established, in 1799, an institution for the numerous orphans of the smaller cantons, which subsisted only a year, and is remarkable as the place where Pestalozzi commenced his new pedagogic institution.

At Buochs, some miles from Stanz, I visited the grave which holds the remains of the painter Wursch, whose master-pieces are still to be admired in the abbey of Engelberg. He fell with his country in the eightieth year of his age. As professor of the academy of painting at Besançon, and historic painter, he deserved well of the arts. This blind old man was sitting at his door on the evening of the dreadful inroad. He thought to move the hearts of the soldiers by his venerable aspect and gentle words: but some barbarians pushed him into the house, where he perished in the flames. Painful, truly painful, is the reflection for the stranger, that the Swiss themselves were not only

idle spectators, but active partakers and abettors in the defeat and calamities of the Underwaldeners. Many have indeed changed their tone, as you may suppose, not only in private but in public. The well-known Bodmer, of Staffa, declared, in an open assembly of the Helvetic senate, in 1800, that, "in the contest with the smaller cantons, some Swiss, and even four of his sons, had joined the French; but he should wish to know which of the two had properly fought for their country?" A question like this, from a man of Bodmer's character, and in such a place, is equivalent to a sarcastic confession neatly levelled at the principles of his colleagues.

One of these modern Swiss having met a worthy descendant of Winkelried's in the bloody and obstinate conflict at Stanzstadt, weltering in his blood, and covered with wounds, he was going to convey him to an hospital, but the other positively refused his aid. "How could you be so mad (said the new Helvetian) to think of resistance with so small a force? Who could have ever put that into your heads?" "Who (returned the old Swiss), who but our good cause, Morgarten, and Sempach?" With these words he departed.

Bürdi of Emmaten had already received several mortal wounds, and was unable to rise from the ground. He continued defending himself till his strength totally deserted him: he had been seen before contending with half a dozen of the enemy. A hoary old man, leaving his sick bed, had his arms carried for him to the field, that he might die fighting.

At Buochs I embarked on the lake of Lucerne for Altorf, by way of Fluelen. On traversing the lake, I passed Gersau, formerly the smallest republic in Europe, now united to Schwitz, and visited Rutli, a humble cot, near a bubbling stream, in a meadow, where the first founders of Swiss liberty swore to their confederacy, and where their degenerate sons profaned its name by commemorating its destruction.

Not far from hence I descried the solitary chapel of Tell, built at the mouth of the lake, on the spot where he had the address to cast himself out of the boat during a storm, and escape his enemies. It is worthy of note, that in this chapel, one of the few monuments that escaped the devastations of the soldiery, there are many painted figures, among whom Tell is represented in the national colours of Switzerland, green, red, and yellow; Gessler and his satellites, on the other hand, in the foreign colours, red, blue, and white; a circumstance that influenced the minds of the Swiss more than may at first be supposed.

Altorf, about half an hour's ride from Fluelen, was formerly a wealthy place, which owed its prosperity to the transit trade between Italy and Germany. It may at some more tranquil period recover its opulence; but it has suffered incalculable mischiefs from the war, and still more from a fire which consumed upwards of 340 dwellings.

This fire arose most probably from accident, and was increased to that immense degree by a hurricane, which was so violent as to rend up trees by the roots, and carry away the roofs from the houses. The cathedral, a spacious and fine building, entirely of stone, was one of the first where the

flames burst out. The sparks flew on its roof, which, according to the custom of the country, consisting of shingles, was immediately set on fire. These burning shingles were carried to a very great distance by the wind, and spread the fire over every quarter. The town-house, armoury, custom-house, and every inn, experienced a similar fate. The tower was also consumed which had been built upon the spot where, 250 years after Tell's death, the lime-tree stood, at which he shot the apple from his son's head.

To complete the calamity, the disturbers of Europe penetrated into this country, and committed their usual depredations. Many stores of wine, that had escaped the fire, were wantonly emptied into the cellars and streets. The French were succeeded by the Germans, and they by the Russians. Strict as was the discipline of the latter, the troops were however obliged, for want of magazines and provisions, to live at the expence of the citizens.

It was at Altorf where Suwarrow, on his passage over the Gothard, embraced the sub-prefect, received the blessing of the minister, and gave his to the surrounding multitude. He made a speech to the latter, calling on them to take up arms, and march with him against the French. A deep silence was the answer: for the weight of sorrow and distress had fallen too heavily on the inhabitants, for them to take any particular interest in political concerns.

I cannot possibly coincide with those who have stamped this commander with the appellations of *boaster* and *savage*. To the great Catharine he had been represented in these colours; but one private conversation with him convinced her of his superior qualities, and determined her in entrusting him with the command; by which choice the glory and fortune of her arms were not a little advanced. The soldiers, by whom he was revered, called him *general Forwards*, the highest compliment they could possibly pay him as a soldier, and amply warranted by his uninterrupted successes in thirty different engagements. The veterans who fought under him hold his memory sacred, and uncover their heads at the bare mention of his name: an honourable testimony to his private character, and an ample confutation of the charges brought against him by his enemies. But he had eccentricities inseparable from a great mind, and such as were ill calculated to conciliate the affections of those in higher life; for he was rigorous in the punishment of faults, and extended his indulgence to the common man rather than the superior officer.

The cathedral, and a third part of the houses have been rebuilt, as also the town inn, the Black Lion, where travellers are well accommodated. In the Schachenbach, a turbulent stream, which often breaks its bounds, and does much mischief, William Tell is said to have been drowned, while attempting to stem the raging tide. At Burglin I was shown the spot where his house stood, as also the Burglin chapel, and the ruins of Gessler's tower.

William Tell's last male descendant, John Martin Tell, died at Altorf in 1684, and Verona Tell, his last female offspring, in 1720.

Instead of ascending the Gothard this way, I preferred bending my course, through the district of An-der-Mat, into the country of the Grisons. This district was pillaged at different times, and lost during the war two-thirds of its cattle, besides sixty-two hamlets demolished, or stripped of their beams and posts, which, to a land without wood, is an almost irreparable loss. On entering the territory of the Grisons, I arrived at Dissentis, which was reduced to ashes by the French in 1799, in order to revenge the death of their comrades, who had been assassinated by the female inhabitants, while all the men capable of bearing arms were marching with a *levy-en-masse* from Ciamut, Trons, &c., against the intrenchments of the French at Reichenau and Coire. The rich collection of minerals made by father Placidus, a specha, and two precious MSS., kept in the library of the convent of Benedictines, were a prey to the flames.

At Trons, three hours' walk from hence, the cascades which fall from the rocks precipitate likewise a great and beautiful variety of granites and green stones of different shades. At Trons is the finest view in the whole Grison league. At the entrance of the village I beheld the ancient and respectable oak, under the shade of which Pierre de Putlingen, abbot of Dessentis, Jean Brun, lord of Roetsuns, and the count Jean de Sax, in 1424, formed the first confederacy, which insured the liberty of the whole Grison league. I arrived soon after at Reichenau, where two of Grubenmann's bridges formerly crossed the river, which were destroyed in the revolution. From Reichenau I took the diligence to Coire, the chief place in the Grison league, which has a chapel of St. Lucius, celebrated as a pilgrimage, and a considerable trade in dried fruits, periwinkles, and sour-krout. It was the innkeeper Mathis of Coire who constantly distinguished himself in the revolutionary war at the head of the peasants. Going from Coire to Glaris, I passed the village of Elm, remarkable for a round cavity pierced through the summit of the mountain Falzabar. On the 3d, 4th, and 5th of March, and 14th, 15th, and 16th of September, old style, the sun passes behind this cavity, which appears to be about three feet in diameter, when seen from the village. On the 4th and 5th you see the disk of the sun fully, which shines on the village clock. You will easily conceive the elev[illegible]f this mountain, when I tell you, that the village of Elm, which is sheltered by it, is deprived in winter of the sight of the sun for six weeks. In this village there was a young girl, who, in the revolutionary war, attacked two French cannons, that were dragging against her countrymen, and by that means gave them an opportunity of rallying.

Glaris was very populous before the revolution, and greatly concerned in the cotton-manufactory. Since the war, the resistance of the inhabitants, together with the stay and requisitions of the foreign troops, have diminished the population nearly one-third, and done infinite damage to their industry. It was to the canton of Glaris that a melancholy crowd of children and orphans fled from the scene of slaughter, to seek a home and a living.

From the town of Glaris I made an excursion to Kloenthal, one of the most interesting vallies in Switzerland, and particularly so now, for having afforded a passage to the hardy Suwarrow on his adventurous march over the Alps, by ways hitherto inaccessible, which he and his army were obliged to pass without provisions, fighting and dragging their cannons.

I slept at Naefels, on my way to Einsiedeln. The fields of Naefels have immortalized the intrepidity and heroism of the Swiss, who performed prodigies of valour in the glorious battle of 1388, and that of 1798. The next morning I proceeded to Einsiedeln, whose abbey was the Loretto of Switzerland before the revolution. During the troubles, both the town and the abbey experienced a double plunder. The monks fled to Suabia, the pilgrimage ceased, and with it vanished the trade that had supported the inhabitants. The whole place was converted into a scene of desolation and misery, and more than half th people would have perished with hunger, had they not received charitable assistance from quarters more fortunate. The pilgrimage is recommencing as usual; the priests are returned; and the image of the virgin, that had fled, is now brought back, and again displayed for public veneration.

Leaving Einsiedeln, I ascended the mountain called the Schweizerhaken, which is a delightful walk to Schwitz, the famous place that gave its name to all Switzerland. Its armoury afforded a rich plunder to the French, and its neighbourhood, which is of considerable extent, suffered immensely, not by fire or plunder (this latter misfortune having befallen only the house of Reding), but by the stay of foreign troops from all nations. Endless requisitions, quartering and feeding of soldiers, could not fail exhausting a country producing little else than grass and hay, and importing its corn, wine, and even vegetables, from other parts. Yet they now begin to recover, and in some measure to forget their distresses.

It was at the opening into the Muttenthal, a valley not far from Schwitz, which was devastated and deluged with human blood, that the army of Suwarrow was on the point of frustrating the plan of Massena in two fierce engagements.

A little to the right of Schwitz I visited the lake of Lowertz, situated amidst the mountains. The view of the two islands in the clear waters of the lake, and the solemn stillness of the surrounding scenery, combine with ancient romance to impart an awful grandeur to this retired spot. On the island of Schwanau, the largest of the two, are the ruins of an old castle, belonging to a bailiff, who, amongst other excesses, stole a young girl from Art, and sacrificed her to his lust; after which, being pursued by the girl's brothers, he threw himself into the lake. The Schwytzers took the castle, and, destroying it all except one tower, built a hermitage in its place, which has scarcely ever wanted an inhabitant. The last hermit, an old man of eighty, died a short time before the revolution, and was buried in the chapel belonging to the hermitage. His successor was soon weary of seclusion, and entered again into the busy world.

The French found the island uninhabited, and the chapel empty; but, fancying that great treasures were buried there, they dug up and turned every thing over and over, not even sparing the grave of the late hermit. Proving unsuccessful in their search, they were enraged at their disappointment, and destroyed whatever came in their way, dashing the pictures of the chapel in pieces, breaking open the hermitage, contaminating it with filth, and carrying away the cover from the single miserable mattress there remaining. The hermitage is now inhabited by a peasant, with his wife and two children, who, after having lost their house by fire, and all their effects by plunder, except one single bed, sought an asylum in this solitary abode.

The second island, which is still smaller, had, in like manner, its hermit's cell and its hermit, who has disappeared for some years. It was formerly a cliff without earth, that has been gradually converted, by art and labour, into a habitable spot, capable of bearing a vine and fruit-trees. It is at present in no better condition than Schwanau, having experienced similar depredations.

Here ended my excursion from Lucerne into the Alps. After having traversed for an hour the beautiful country leading from Schwitz to Brunnen, I embarked on the lake of the Four Cantons for this city. This lake, nine leagues in length, and elevated one thousand three hundred and twenty feet above the sea, is stamped by nature with an aspect both sublime and terrific, that renders it at the same time picturesque and romantic. During the revolution its waters trembled with the thunder of the hostile cannon, its banks were illumined with the flames of conflagration, and its whole neighbourhood resounded with the cries and groans of the wretched inhabitants perishing from famine and the sword. Brunnen, where the three cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwalden formerly swore to a perpetual alliance, was twice pillaged, and the last time in a dreadful manner that beggars all description.

I left Lucerne very early in the morning, dined at Sursee, and slept at Morgenthal. The next day I spent a few moments at Hindelbank, three leagues from Berne, in visiting the mausoleum of madame Larghans, the beautiful performance of Nahl, which has suffered considerably by time. Then, turning a little to the right, I entered the district of Soleure, in order to see a monument in the village of Frauenbrunnen, commemorating the victory gained by the ancient Bernese over the bands of the lord of Courcy. This monument is a simple pillar, with an inscription, now inverted. Here, as well as in Grauenholz, in the same route, I beheld a more interesting spectacle, in the tombs of the patriots who perished there in 1798: for these fields were witnesses, after four centuries and a half, to the defeat of the descendants of the Bernese heroes, in spite of the obstinate resistance made by some individuals. At Grauenholz, the Thermopylæ of Berne, Effinger and May, both old men, fell among other Swiss refusing quarter, and resolving not to survive their country's disgrace. At Frauenbrunnen I was shown the grave of Nicolaus Benedict, head peasant of that place, who pe-

rished fighting with his daughters and son-in-law. Here also rest the ashes of Schirtenlieb, an old man of seventy, who, though released by age from actual service, put himself at the head of his company; and, after having stood the first attack, finding himself in the second alone, and almost deserted, refused to leave the field, and was in a short time cut to pieces by the enemy. No less magnanimous was the death of captain Gruber, of Konigsfelden, who died fighting single-handed against numbers. Above thirty women and girls had marched out with the *levy-en-masse*, armed with spiked clubs, and found on this spot a glorious death.

In a few hours I reached the peninsula formed by the Aar, on which Berne stands. Its entrance announces it to be an opulent, cleanly, and beautiful city. Its principal street, which may vie with any in the first cities of Europe, is very long and broad, well-built, and decorated with statues and fountains, from which issue streams of pure water.

Berne, as the capital of Switzerland, and the basis of its confederacy, was a mark for the designing invaders, whose cause was but too well supported by the blind and infatuated Swiss, unable to penetrate the schemes of the artful republicans. The fall of Berne was a necessary prelude to that of Helvetia; which, as we have since been told by Carnot in the council of five hundred, was projected with a view of obtaining its rich treasuries and arsenals. Although the short-sighted multitude rejoiced in the downfal of this powerful canton, unconscious that it would be so quickly succeeded by their own, yet many individuals formed honourable exceptions, and made a noble struggle for their liberties. In the battle of the 3d of March, near Lengnau, a standard-bearer of the Oberland battalion, named Abraham Gaffner, being separated from his comrades, and hard pressed by some of the enemy, resolved on running every risk rather than fall into their hands with his colours, and threw himself into the woods of Jura by Soleure; here he remained all the night in the bitterest cold, and was so far fortunate the next morning as to get over the Aar, and reach his battalion in safety, as they were returning home from Berne.

Another standard-bearer, Peter Gluck, after receiving a severe wound in his arm, continued in the battle, and kept his badges of honour in his possession until he reached Oberland in safety.

On the same unhappy day the enemy fiercely attacked the little town of Büren, in the canton of Berne, with infantry and artillery: the first lieutenant, Ris von Burgdorf, found means of diminishing the fire in some measure by planting a heavy six-pounder behind a dunghill, and taking such good aim with a charge of cartridges, as at the first shot to kill or wound eight of the artillery-men standing by their cannon opposite to him. With this single piece he continued to gall the enemy, while they were unable to dismount it, or in any way to injure him. The ludicrous part of this affair was the mistake into which the Bernese troops fell, on seeing a trumpeter approach from the camp of the enemy. They imagined he was come to sue for grace; and in an exulting tone cried out, "that it was high time for them to think of asking pardon;" instead of

which, the enemy, who had hitherto been unsuccessful in their military operations, resolved to try the effects of impudence, and therefore summoned the place to surrender. Nothing could exceed the indignation of the soldiery on finding their disappointment, and they were with difficulty restrained from committing some act of rashness.

Wherever the enemy met with Berne cannon, they found, to their astonishment, with what obstinacy they were maintained by the cannoneers, who always preferred death to a desertion of their posts. In this last engagement, when the Bernese were repulsed, one single cannoneer was left standing in the midst of his killed and wounded comrades, close by the cannon, which he resolved to maintain to the very last. In order not to die unrevenged, he broke off a pole from one of the waggons, with which he slew four of those pressing onward, until the thrust of a bayonet in his neck brought him to the ground. Even the drivers were animated by the same spirit: while the enemy by Lengnau were pushing on towards the cannon, one kept his place immoveably between his horses; a soldier of the black legion planted a bayonet at his breast, and offered him quarter: "No," said he; "no quarter from the enemies of my country;" upon which he immediately fell pierced to the ground.

Although the Bernese dragoons gave cause for many heavy complaints during this short war, yet there were some who remained true to their country. On the above-mentioned day, when the artillery, which was to have defended Soleure, were left in the lurch by the dragoons, and consequently obliged to retreat for fear of being cut off, one standard-bearer and a single private from the latter stood manfully at their posts, and by their individual exertions kept the enemy off for a considerable time. On the 5th of March, when many dragoons even fled to Berne, the conduct of the first lieutenant, Lewis von Watenweil, commanding one division of the Aarau dragoons, formed an honourable contrast with that of the former; and received, on that account, from general Schauenburg, a free retreat for himself and his men: while the others were contemptuously treated, and stripped of their arms, horses, and baggage, as a punishment for their cowardice.

From Berne I made a second excursion into the Alps, proceeding by this route over the Semplon and the Swiss part of the Gothard. The road from Berne to Thun, through a delightful country watered by the Aar, is one of those good causeways which owes its existence to the paternal vigilance and care of the old Bernese government. And yet this road passes very near Mursingen, the place where general Erlach, a descendant from one of the oldest and best families in Switzerland, was cruelly mangled by some assassins, yet bearing the name of Swiss. This happened as he was repairing into the Oberland, after the first unfortunate events of March, 1798, in order there to make a fresh and more vigorous resistance. I was shown the stone on which the worthy Steiger sat, impatiently awaiting death after the fall of his much beloved country: but death did not attend his call in his own land, leaving him to find a peaceful grave in a foreign

soil. After the occupation of Zurich by the Austrians, he repaired to that city, and met with the most flattering reception from the archduke Charles. Upon this commander's leaving Zurich, the Russian generals emulated each other in paying him the highest marks of distinction. The fatal event of the battle of Zurich was too severe a stroke for a man in his state of health. He was with difficulty removed from Zurich when the Russians left the city, preferring to end his days in the place that had given him birth. He fell dangerously ill at Lindau, and was carried to Augsburg, where he died; and was honoured with as splendid a funeral as that place had ever witnessed.

From Thun, one of the prettiest towns of Switzerland, I traversed the romantic valley of Frutigen, rich in pastures, and watered by the Kandel. It contains some mines, that appear to be a continuation of those in the valley of Lauterbrunnon. From Frutigen, one of the beautifullest villages in Switzerland, I was led to the valley of Kandelsteg, straighter and wilder than the preceding. I admired the lofty rocks, suspended, as it were, in the air, and crowned with the ruins of an old castle. The village of that name is situated at the foot of the Gemmi, which I ascended by a narrow and dangerous path on the brink of precipices. Since the revolution this passage has been rendered less difficult, by the constant passing and repassing of men and horses.

The road which Berne, in concert with the Valais, had made here by the means of powder through the perpendicular rocks, is one of the greatest curiosities in Switzerland, and does honour to the boldness of human ingenuity. The road is actually hollowed into the rock, which is so perpendicular that you cannot trace it to the bottom with the eye. Descending by this road, I arrived, in an hour and a half, at the baths of Leuck, which have enjoyed so high a reputation, and are the resort for so many sick people. Bad inns, great reservoirs where the sick bathe altogether, and hot streams running in great numbers into the valley, are the only things I noticed. One singular property was, however, pointed out to me in these springs: namely, that vegetables, greens, herbs, and flowers, almost withered away, will recover their freshness after remaining an hour in waters hot enough, as one might suppose, to boil them. On arriving at the town of Leuck, I was shown an aqueduct, suspended above the road, formed of the trunks of trees, and supported by bars of iron against the sides of the perpendicular rock. It is now used by the inhabitants as a footpath, being a nearer way than the ordinary one. Passing along the delightful banks of a river, that waters a fruitful country, abounding in vines, fig-trees, and every rich fruit, I arrived in Brieg, the most considerable place in the country around, where many traces of the earthquake of Lisbon are still visible. The shock was so powerfully felt in the mountains of Semplon, that even the vultures flew from their nests, the herds left the acclivities, and the mountains were concussed into ruins.

The districts of Brieg and Leuk (as, in fact, the principal part of the Pays de Vaud) is the country that suffered the most

materially during the invasion of 1798. Between Brieg and Semplon more than four hundred buildings were burnt, and in the district of Leuk eight hundred and seventy-one. The tract of land, from Sempione as far as Sitten, was witness to indescribable horrors. In the beautiful town of Sitten, the desperate inhabitants contended with their enemies, like the Swiss at Zurich and Underwalden. Three old burgs, romantically situated on the three pinnacles of the mountains, were again the theatre of war and bloodshed, as in the times of feudal revolutions. Plunderings for weeks together, requisitions of every kind, the demolition of houses in order to find concealed property, disease among the cattle, famine and death among men: these were the principal features in the shocking picture which this country presented, while oppressed by an external and internal war, that has left the seeds of the bitterest hatred in the minds of the survivors. I every where met with the widows and orphans of families either slain or starved, or otherwise ruined; and listened to their lamentations with the deepest sorrow. One consolation only remained for the unhappy sufferers, that they whom they mourned had died, not as traitors and cowards, but mostly like men honourably fighting for their paternal hearths.

Valais, formerly attached to the canton of Berne by conquest, and afterwards conciliated to it by mild treatment, is now an independent republic; but not, as may be fairly concluded, from the will of the majority. The country people were steady in their adherence to the old Berne government; and in 1798, the faithful legion of Roverca, as it was called, consisted of nothing but inhabitants from the Pays de Vaud. A great number of these people are still animated with these feelings, whilst a different spirit reigns in the cities and among the seigneurs; who, in fact, were the principal authors of the misery to which the country has been reduced. The struggle of these faithful subjects was, for a long time, as successful as it was honourable. The victory by Neueneck, where a handful of the Berne militia repulsed the most experienced and valiant troops, evince what might have been effected with vigour and consistency on the part of the government. But wavering councils, timid deliberations, and contradictory commands, in a moment when action, the most intrepid action, could alone turn the scale, were calculated to wean the affections of the people, and confirmed the report industriously circulated by their enemies, that they were betrayed by their own government. Hence the atrocities committed on general Erlach, and the four colonels, Stelder, Rophiner, Gumoens, and Crusatz, who fell by the arms of their own soldiers for a supposed treachery: the first two were killed near Berne, and the other two in the wood by Allenluften. Their murderers are still alive, and even known; but whether punished, I know not. If you want a farther proof of these honest people's attachment to their government, you will surely find it in the unaffected expression of a peasant, who, on seeing the painted bears, the old arms of Berne, after they were torn down, cried out, "*Bon bête, tu reviendras.*"

From Brieg I was naturally induced to cross the Semplon, a mountain now rendered famous for the adventurous march of the 102d and 44th brigades, together with some companies of Helvetic infantry, under the command of general Bethencourt and the quatremere Disjonval. On this march the column arrived at a spot where the passage over the precipice had been effected by pieces of wood only, stuck at one end into the hollows of the rock, and resting with the other on cross beams. This singular bridge had been carried away by a crag that had precipitated itself from an immense height into the impetuous torrent below, and no vestige of it was now remaining, but the holes in the rock where the beams had been fastened. One of the soldiers volunteered his services to step over the place, by setting his foot in these holes, and carrying a rope across the abyss, which he might fasten at the other end. Having effected his purpose, and stretched his rope tight across, the general set the example of passing over, suspended by his arms and hands on the rope; in which he was followed by the whole army, one by one, with their arms and knapsacks. The five dogs that attended them were not equally fortunate; seeing their masters on the opposite side, they plunged into the gulph in order to swim over: three were swallowed up in the stream, and seen no more; the two others being sufficiently strong to stem the tide, reached the shore, and climbed up the perpendicular rocks.

On this very rock, which threatened to stop the progress of the French, I read the names of the general and the staff officers inscribed.

The attention of Bonaparte having been directed to this mountain as a military position, he was induced to have a road made that should run as far as Geneva. A hospice is also to be erected here, in imitation of the one on the Great St. Bernhard; and, in the mean time, two spiritual and four lay brothers have made a sort of provisory residence on the Stockalberg.

From Semplon I directed my course over the Swiss part of the Gothard, and visited the Pfaffensprung cascade, Pont de Diable, Schollenen, Urner cave, and Urseline vale; the descriptions of which in other books will have delighted you as much as it has me. The Pont de Diable was twice ruined in the revolutionary war. The solitude of this sublime scene, which nature had exalted far above the ordinary bustle of this lower world, and which seemed totally isolated by inaccessible rocks, was profaned by the carnage and horrors of war. In these caverns and abysses, the Germans, Russians, and oppressed inhabitants, engaged the French by turns, and filled the depths of the recess with human bodies. The latter had vainly attempted to render the bridge impassable, by destroying the front arch; the intrepid Russians, with Suwarrow at their head, crossed it fighting upon poles bound together by the scarfs of the officers. The bridge is not yet restored to its original state.

Here, in the neighbourhood of this bridge, it was that after the conclusion of the bloody work, one of the Kossaks heard, in the

stillness of the night, a soft moaning that seemed to rise out of the immense abyss. Stepping to the brink, he called, but received no answer; yet the moaning continued. Without deliberation, the honest Kossak began to descend from one ledge of the rock to the other, the depth of above two hundred feet, when he discovered a French officer wounded and almost dying on the ground. The task of humanity is understood by all men, in the remotest corners of the earth, without the use of words. The inhabitant of Dnieper lost no time in relieving the distress, even of an enemy. The sick man being too much wounded to make use of his legs, the Kossak disencumbered himself of his arms, took him upon his back, and began to ascend with his burden. He had not gone far before a piece of rock, which he thought secure, giving way, he was rolled down an immense distance, and a severe gash cut in his leg; but, regardless of the streaming blood, he once more attempted to mount the ascent, and at length succeeded, with infinite trouble, in his generous purpose. The officer on duty highly commended this noble action, and took care of the wounded man, who was quartered at Hanz, and after his recovery frequently related this incident with the strongest emotions of gratitude.

The monastery of the capuchins, erected in the thirteenth century for the convenience of passengers to Germany or Italy, is now no more. To this monastery, which served as a place of entertainment for more wealthy travellers, was attached an hospital, for the gratuitous relief of the poor wanderer, a chapel for divine service, a store-house for the goods passing this way, a good stable and a hay-loft, with fodder for the mules and other beasts of burden, which amounted before the revolution to the number of twelve hundred. In the bad seasons the lay-brothers went out, with dogs trained for the purpose, in quest of unfortunate sufferers, and were the means of saving many a life, which would otherwise have been lost in these dreary heights. But during the war, the constant passing and repassing of troops, and the bloody contests which ensued for the maintenance of these positions, occasioned this mansion to be totally deserted. The buildings were several times plundered, and the inhabitants, after being stripped of every thing, were driven away. The place then remained empty, until the winter of 1799, when the French put in a picquet of fifty men; who, notwithstanding they were provided with wood for firing, burnt up the doors, windows, beams, and, in short, every thing which might have served as a shelter. In the year 1800, the parish of Airolo had a miserable hut built for three patroles to guard the few merchandizes then commencing to pass that way; but the hardships under which these people laboured during the revolution had impoverished them so much, that they are not able to restore it to its former condition.

The inhabitants of this whole country beheld their houses burning, their goods plundered or destroyed, their cattle led away to the slaughter-houses, their beasts of burden put in requisition, and their provision consumed or lavished away by hostile bands.

They often found themselves

compelled to seek a shelter, with their families, in caverns and rocks, leaving their cottages to the fury of a merciless army. At the insurrection of the inhabitants in the Laviner vale against the French, the large and beautiful village of Airolo was completely desolated, the sick and old being all murdered by the enraged soldiery.

In 1800, when the ammunition of Moncy's division was to be transported over the Alps to Italy, the inhabitants were obliged to supply the place of beasts of burden, in consequence of the deficiency in the latter which the war had occasioned. For every hundred weight they carried, they were to receive a portion of bread and spirits; but of this poor allowance they were frequently deprived, from negligence or design. The conveyance lasted for three weeks, and the roads were covered with these unhappy people, who proceeded in ranks, bending under their heavy burdens. The strongest men led up the column, and were followed by women, children, and old men; many of whom were either too young or too old for any labour, and who all marched barefoot over the pebbles. They were under the command of some French subalterns, to whose caprice and hard treatment they were frequently victims. What would have been the feelings of the ancestors of these new Swiss, who had wielded the sword with such valour and glory in former times, at seeing their posterity compelled to submit to the lash of a foreign centurion.

The wretched consequences of these hardships are felt, in some measure, even to this day. Bread and every necessary of life, which during a whole year were scarcely to be had for money, are now returning to their usual state; and the traffic over the Gothard between Italy and Germany, which had entirely ceased at one time, is now reviving more and more every day.

Leaving the village of L'Hopital on the Gothard, I returned to Berne by the Grimsel, Hassli, Grindelwald, and Lauterbrunnen; a tour which, if it had not been so often before described, I would certainly relate to you in a particular manner.

A fine road, through a beautiful country, on the way from Berne to this city, brought me in a few hours to Murten, one of those classic spots in the old Swiss history, rendered famous by the defeat of Charles the bold of Burgundy. He alone was almost the only one, out of many thousands, that escaped from this scene of slaughter to Nozeroy, in the Franche Comté. After the manner of their forefathers, the victors collected the bones of the slain, and put them into a house, from thence called the charnel-house, in which were many inscriptions commemorating the victory. In 1798, general Brune had this house consumed, and a tree of liberty planted in its place: the battalion of the Côte-d'Or, consisting principally of Burgundians, were the executors of his commands.

Never would a tree of liberty have been erected here, had the Swiss borne in mind one truth of Haller's, in his German inscription recording this victory; namely, that the power of their state did not consist in numbers and artificial weapons, but in *unity*. In the year 1476, we find the Zurichers hastened through the rain

and darkness of the night, to the relief of their confederates, the Bernese; and in the year 1798, their descendants secretly rejoicing, and perhaps abetting, in their ruin. But in 1802, grown wiser by experience, they combined together again to build up what they had allowed to be pulled down. In these very fields of Murten, the troops of the new Helvetic government were attacked by the old Swiss, assembled from all the cantons. The former were totally routed, and their party annihilated. If ever there were a *union of will in any nation*, it was in Switzerland at this period, when rising up against this modern despotism in Helvetia. The insurrection met with the hearty concurrence of every citizen, from the Rhine to the Lago Maggiore. Universal opinion charged the government with being the authors of every mischief to which their country had been subject; and every tongue pronounced them deserving the punishment which attends the violators of laws and the disturbers of peace. For, with all the party spirit still observable in this country, there is one truth, in which men of every faction and religion are agreed, that Switzerland was happy before 1798.

FACTS RELATIVE TO THE PRESENT STATE OF THE CITY OF TRIPOLI; BY JONATHAN COWDERY, SURGEON OF THE LATE AMERICAN FRIGATE PHILADELPHIA.

July 10, 1805.

The city of Tripoli stands on the north coast of Africa, in north latitude 32° 54′, and longitude east from London 13° 11′; and is built on the ruins of the ancient Oca, on a sandy soil. It contains about 40,000 Turks, 5000 Jews, and 1000 Roman catholics and Greeks. It has eight mosques and one christian church; some of the mosques are very large.

The baths are places of considerable resort, on account of the injunctions of Mahomet, which direct the keeping the body clean: but I have seen many deviate from this, and rub their bodies with dry sand instead of water*. This custom, I am informed, originated from the pilgrims and travellers not being able to find water while travelling over the desert. The Bedouins, a kind of sojourning Arabs, and people from the interior of Africa, often prefer this imperfect method of purification, even when water is at hand.

Many of the buildings have the appearance of great antiquity, of which the Turks can give no account. Among them is a Roman palace and a triumphal arch. The castle stands on the water's edge, in the north-easternmost corner of the city. Its ramparts are of different heights; on the land side they are from forty to eighty, and on the water side they are from thirty-five to forty feet in height. Twenty-five pieces of brass ordnance, of different sizes, are mounted on different parts of the castle, to command the city, adjoining country, and harbour. Several of the apartments in the west end of the castle are large, commodious, and airy, ornamented with a variety of fine marble, mosaic and stucco work, and richly furnished in the Turkish style.

* This substitute, in cases of necessity, is allowed by Mahomet.—*Ed.*

Here the Bashaw receives and holds audience with foreign ambassadors and consuls; holds his divan, which he often imperiously over-rules; and gives his mandates, which are often enforced by the most cruel torture and death. Here are a great number of smaller apartments; a large open court and spacious gallery, for the accommodation and residence of the bashaw, his wives, children, and attendants: here is also a bomb-proof room, to which the bashaw flies in times of danger. The apartments in the east end of the castle are stables for the bashaw's horses, and prisons where our officers and myself were confined, and where the bashaw confines his hostages and criminals; and in the midst of which is the magazine of gunpowder. These gloomy mansions of horror are in bad repair, full of vermin, and is the filthiest place in all Tripoli.

The city, including the castle, is three miles and a half in circumference. The country about Tripoli, nearly to the foot of mount Atlas, which is two days journey from Tripoli, is all, except the gardens and orchards near the city, a sandy and barren desert. The houses, the ramparts, and batteries which surround it, are built of the ruins of the ancient cities of Oca, Leptis, and Sabrata, which are chiefly of marble, and a variety of other calcareous stones, and columns of granite, many of which are very large, put together with a cement of lime and sand; but without the regularity of square, plumb-line, or level. The walls are generally white-washed with new-slacked lime, at the commencement of the ramadan or carnival. The tops of the houses are flat, and covered with a composition chiefly of lime, which, when dry, forms a very firm terrace. To ward against the vengeance of their enemies, the whole city is fire-proof.

The fresh water used in Tripoli, except in time of scarcity, or the fear of a siege, when it is brought from the wells in the desert on mules, asses, and christian slaves, is rain-water caught in winter, the only time of rain in this country; it runs from the terraces, through well constructed earthen tubes into large vaulted reservoirs, which are built of stone and lime, and well coated with lime, and are in the earth below the influence of the sun; where it is preserved from filth, and when drawn for use it is remarkably clear, cool, and pleasant. The walls in and about Tripoli, for about two miles from the sea-shore, produce brackish water, which is used for scrubbing and drenching the sinks, necessaries, sewers, &c., and for watering the gardens and orchards during the dry season. Sinks lead from the houses through the bottoms of the necessaries into very large common sewers, which lead into the sea, all of which are built of stone and lime. The seamen and marines of the late frigate Philadelphia can attest the vast quantity of lime used in Tripoli; a number of whom were driven, by unfeeling barbarians, to work in it for nineteen months.

The streets, not being paved, are naturally very dusty; but every thing of the nature of manure is diligently sought for, gathered into large baskets, slung upon camels, mules, and asses,

and carried to the gardens and orchards, to raise the soil from its natural state of barrenness. These little plantations are each enclosed with high walls; they contain from two to six acres each; several of them are cultivated by European gardeners, and are made to produce all the useful roots, plants, and fruits that are natural to the torrid and temperate zones. These enclosures are about 2000 in number, all interspersed with tall date trees, and are laid out in such a manner, that collectively they form a semicircle, which extends from shore to shore, at a little distance from the city. This ever-green half zone, the sandy desert which it lies upon, and the proud Atlas which borders the prospect, when viewed from the top of the castle-gate of the city, or the shipping on the coast, presents a beautiful prospect.

The winds from the north, north-east, and north-west, are generally very salubrious; those from the south, south-west, and south-east, come over the parched continent, and are generally very oppressive: they are called the Sirocco, and sometimes rise to that degree of heat and violence, that those who are not able to find shelter in houses, tents, &c., often perish; it sometimes lasts three days, but generally not longer than the first twelve of the twenty-four hours. The want of proper apparatus rendered me unable to learn the different degrees of the temperature of the climate. The nights and mornings are sometimes cool after rain; but I never, while in Tripoli, saw any frost or snow.

The principal market is held, every Tuesday, on the sandy beach about one mile easterly of the city, where a variety of articles are sold, and the butchers kill and sell their meat, chiefly to christians, Jews, and the higher order of Turks. Very little meat is killed in the city. The common class of people, and the bashaw's troops and seamen, eat but little meat; their diet is chiefly dates, olives, oil of olives, bread, and a variety of vegetables, which they cook in oil. The Turks are, with a few exceptions, strangers to luxury and dissipation.

The prevailing disorders among the natives of Tripoli were, ophthalmia in summer, and catarrh and slight pneumonic affections in winter. The former I attributed to a remarkably serene and brilliant sky, and the scorching winds from the continent; the latter to the want or neglect of proper clothing. The dead, except those of the bashaw's family, and a high order of marabuts, or priests, are buried out of the city. On the beach, one cable length east of the castle, and half a cable length above high water mark, myself, with our boatswain and twelve of our crew, did last summer, through the desire of captain Bainbridge, and permission of the bashaw, bury our brave officers and seamen, who were killed in the explosions and in the engagements off Tripoli, and who floated on shore. In digging the graves, our men hove up vast quantities of human bones. The Turks informed me, that they were bones of the people who died of the plague many years ago; they collected them into baskets, and carried them away as fast as possible, muttering and saying that they should not be polluted with christian bones.

The calcareous substances of which Tripoli is chiefly built, the well-constructed drains, the killing the meat and burying the dead at a distance from the city, the removing the offal and filth to the gardens for manure, and the temperate manner in which the Turks and Arabs live, have without doubt been the cause of the late remarkable continuance of health in Tripoli.

POETRY.

POETRY.

ADDRESSED TO A MOTHER,

ON THE DEATH OF TWO INFANTS,

19th September, 1803, *and* *19th December*, 1806.

SURE, to the mansions of the blest
When infant innocence ascends,
Some angel, brighter than the rest,
The spotless spirit's flight attends.

On wings of ecstacy they rise
Beyond where worlds material roll:
Till some fair sister of the skies
Receives the unpolluted soul.

There, at th' Almighty Father's hand,
Nearest the throne of living light,
The choirs of infant seraphs stand,
And dazzling shine, where all are bright.

Chain'd for a dreary length of years
Down to these elements below,
Some stain the sky-born spirit bears,
Contracted from this world of woe.

That inextinguishable beam,
With dust united at our birth,
Sheds a more dim, discolour'd gleam,
The longer its sojourn on earth.

Clos'd in this dark abode of clay
The stream of glory faintly burns;
Nor unobscur'd the lucid ray
To its own native fount returns.

But when the Lord of mortal breath
Decrees his bounty to resume,
And points the silent shaft of death,
Which speeds an infant to the tomb,

No passion fierce, no low desire
Has quench'd the radiance of the flame,
Back to its God the living fire
Reverts unclouded as it came.

Oh, Anna! be that solace thine:
Let Hope her healing charm impart;
And soothe, with melodies divine,
The anguish of a *mother's* heart.

Oh! think the darlings of thy love,
Divested of this earthly clod,
Amid unnumber'd saints above,
Bask in the bosom of their God.

Of their *short* pilgrimage on earth
Still tender images remain;
Still, still they bless thee for their birth,
Still filial gratitude retain.

The days of pain, the nights of care,
The bosom's agonizing strife,
The pangs which thou for them didst bear,
No! they forgot them not with life.

Scarce could their germing thought conceive
While in this vale of tears they dwelt;
Scarce their fond sympathy relieve
The suff'ring thou for them hast felt.

But there the soul's perennial flower
Expands in never-fading bloom,
Spurns at the grave's poor transient hour,
And shoots immortal from the tomb.

No weak unform'd idea there
Toils, the mere promise of a mind;
The tide of intellect flows clear,
Strong, full, unchanging, and refin'd.

Each anxious care, each rending sigh,
That wrung for them the parent's breast,
Dwells on remembrance in the sky,
Amid the raptures of the blest.

O'er thee, with looks of love they bend,
For thee the Lord of life implore;
And oft from sainted bliss descend,
Thy wounded quiet to restore.

Oft in the stillness of the night
They smooth the pillow for thy bed;
Oft, till the morn's returning light,
Still watchful hover o'er thy head.

Hark! in such strains as saints employ,
They whisper to thy bosom, peace;
Calm the perturbed heart to joy,
And bid the streaming sorrow cease.

Then dry henceforth the bitter tear;
Their part and thine inverted see!
Thou wert *their* guardian angel here,
They guardian angels now *to thee*.

January 12, 1807.

ON THE DEATH OF A YOUNG LADY.

'Tis finish'd, the sad toil is o'er,
Sickness and sorrow wound no more,
Nor pining cares molest;
From all which wrung the bitter tear,
Which mark'd the path of suffering here,
The happy soul has rest.

Though strew'd with tears the path she trod,
With faith and hope her bosom glow'd,
And panted for the skies;
Now, burst from all the bonds of clay,
Triumphant glories gild the way
Where the pure spirit flies.

O, form'd to show the thoughtless fair
How far above each trifling care
Th' immortal mind should soar!

To teach them, while bright fortune's day,
And youth and beauty gild the way,
The soul should rise to more.

'Twas her's, with manners mild, refin'd,
Superior sense and sweetness join'd,
To win Affection's smile;
To lure to blest Religion's sway,
And, by her pure celestial ray,
Adversity beguile.

Ah! why subdued the exalted mind,
The sphere of usefulness confin'd,
And crush'd its noblest aim?
To know why thus thy sacred will,
O Thou! who rul'st in wisdom still,
We drop our baffled claim.

O, long belov'd in friendship dear,
While Sorrow sheds the tender tear,
And breathes the parting sigh,
May faith the ardent hope still give,
Like thee, fair excellence! to live,
Like thee in peace to die!

ON THE DISCOVERIES OF CAPTAIN LEWIS.

BY JOEL BARLOW.

Let the Nile cloak his head in the clouds, and defy
The researches of science and time;
Let the Niger escape the keen traveller's eye,
By plunging or changing his clime;

Columbus! not so shall thy boundless domain
Defraud thy brave sons of their right;
Streams, midlands, and shorelands elude us in vain;
We shall drag their dark regions to light.

Look down, sainted sage, from thy synod of gods;
See, inspired by thy venturous soul,
Mackenzie roll northward his earth-draining floods,
And surge the broad waves to the pole.

With the same soaring genius thy Lewis ascends;
And, seizing the car of the sun,
O'er the sky-propping hills and high waters he bends,
And gives the proud earth a new zone.

Potowmak, Ohio, Messouri had felt
Half her globe in their cincture comprest;
His long curving course has completed the belt,
And tam'd the last tide of the west.

Then hear the loud voice of the nation proclaim,
And all ages resound the decree,
Let our occident stream bear the young hero's name,
Who taught him his path to the sea.

These four brother floods, like a garland of flowers,
Shall entwine all our states in a band,
Conform and confederate their wide-spreading powers,
And their wealth and their wisdom expand.

From Darien to Davis one garden shall bloom,
Where war's wearied banners are furl'd;
And the far-scenting breezes, that waft its perfume,
Shall settle the storms of the world.

WRITTEN BY A LADY,

ON READING A MANUSCRIPT JOURNAL, OF THE CELEBRATED LITTLE PRODIGY, J. H. PAYNE.

Sweet face, where frolic fancies rove,
Where all youth's glowing graces reign,
Who art thou? Genius, Pleasure, Love?
The smiling vision answer'd, Pain.

I thought *Pain* was a spectre dire,
Was Genius', Love's, or Pleasure's bane:
Thy cheek is health, *thy* eye is fire;
No, beauteous youth, thou art not *Pain*.

Ah! gentle maid, if e'er thy breast
Knew transient Joy, Love's galling chain,
One ray of Genius hadst possess'd
Thou wouldst have known they all were *pain*.

PHILADELPHIA, AN ELEGY.

WRITTEN DURING THE PREVALENCE OF THE YELLOW FEVER, IN 1797.

Imperial daughter of the west,
Why thus in widow'd weeds recline?
With every gift of nature blest,
The empire of a world was thine.

Late brighter than the star that beams
When the soft morning carol flows;
Now mournful as the maniac's dreams,
When Melancholy veils his woes.

What foe, with more than Gallic ire,
Has thinn'd thy city's thronging way,
Bade the sweet breath of youth expire,
And manhood's powerful pulse decay?

No Gallic foe's ferocious band,
Fearful as fate, as death severe,
But the destroying angel's hand,
With hotter rage, with fiercer fear.

I saw thee in thy prime of days,
In glory rich, in beauty fair,
When many a patriot shar'd thy praise,
And nurs'd thee with maternal care.

Columbia's genius, veil thy brow,
Guardian of freedom, hither bend:
The prayer of mercy meets thee now,
With healing energy descend.

Chase far the fiend whose burning tread
Consumes the fairest flower that blows;
Bends the sweet lily's bashful head,
And fades the blushes of the rose.

E'en now ill-omen'd birds of prey
Through the unpeopled mansions rove,
Quench'd is that eye's inspiring ray,
And lost the breezy lip of love.

Yet guard the FRIEND, who wandering near
Haunts which the loitering Schuylkill laves,
Bestows the tributary tear,
Or fans with sighs the drowzy waves.

And, while his mercy-dealing hand
Feeds many a famished child of care,
Wave round his brow thy saving wand,
And breathe thy sweetness through the air.

Till, borne on Health's elastic wing,
Aloft the rapid whirlwind flies;
The coldest gale of Zembla bring,
And brace with frost the dripping skies.

Yet bid the naiads bring their urns,
Haste, and the marble fount unclose,
Through streets where Syrian summer burns,
Till all the cool libation flows

Cool as the brook that bathes the heath
When noon unfolds his silent hours,
Refreshing as the morning's breath,
Along the cleansing streamlet pours.

Imperial daughter of the west,
No rival win thy wreath away;
In all the wealth of nature drest,
Again thy sovereign charms display;

See all thy setting glories rise,
Again thy thronging streets appear!
Thy mart a hundred ports supplies,
Thy harvests feed the circling year!

REMONSTRANCE OF THE POPLAR-WORM.

BY J. E. HARWOOD.

What means the quick-averted eye,
The nimble footsteps apt to fly,
Whene'er my form appears;
The cruel torture misapplied,
Experiments more cruel tried
By vain and idle fears?

You who my humble form surround,
As slowly creeping on the ground,
Know I resemble you:
With toil I gain what Heaven grants,
I live in labour and in pain,
Obscure and hid from view.

And you whose gilded chariots fly,
Like meteors in the azure sky,
  Your fate resembles mine:
Soon rais'd from dirt on zephyr's wing
I sail in many an airy ring,
  And in rich lustre shine.

One diff'rence us there is between:
My loathsome figure forms no screen
  Where poison lurks behind;
Whilst you to vice, to folly given,
Debase the fairest form of heaven,
  Degrade the godlike mind.

REFLECTIONS AT SEA,

ON A MOON-LIGHT EVENING.

'Tis sweet, upon the vessel's side,
To stand and view the unruffled tide;
Sadly to mark the silent scene,
In the evening's close serene;
To muse on one who, far away,
Perhaps beholds this setting ray,
And at the sight may think, the while,
What welcome words, what cheerful smile,
Shall greet the youth, whose love-taught toil
Has driven him from his native soil.

Ah! how such thoughts can soothe the soul
That bends, a slave, to Love's controul!
Heedless he hears old Ocean roar,
And waste his fury on the shore;
Tranquil and calm, he boldly braves
The howling hurricane and dashing waves.

Gay Hope then gilds with brightest rays
The prospects of his coming days;
Around his couch she darts her beams,
And bathes in bliss his shadowy dreams.

In gloomy hours a silent tear
May mark the steps of life's career;
To distant plains when forc'd away,
He sadly chides the ling'ring day;
Yet Hope is kindly hovering nigh
His soul to cheer, his tear to dry:

Soft she whispers future pleasures,
Tasting Cupid's richest treasures.

Fancy, too, brings her witching aid,
And shows the absent beauteous maid;
He sees those soft successful arts
Enchaining all beholders' hearts;
Her mirthful laugh and winning smile,
Her love-fraught glance and luring wile;
The same the lustre of that eye,
Where sportful loves in ambush lie:
The lily fair and perfum'd rose,
That on her cheek alternate glows.
He hears her words, bewitching all,
As soft the silver accents fall;
He hears her weave her artless lay,
Mildly severe, serenely gay.
Mounted on her radiant wing,
Afar he views Hope's joyful spring;
His soul is warmed with Love's chaste fire;
His hand awakes the warbling lyre,
To paint to *one*, in glowing hues,
The inspirations of his muse.
The music strikes LEYRIDA's ear;
And shall she, not unpleased, hear
Its sounds? and to her distant friend
Love's gratulations swiftly send?
Bid his soul repose in peace;
Bid distrust her murmurs cease;
Free his heart from sick'ning gloom;
And deck his cheek with joy's bright bloom?

The sylphs whose wings around her fly,
And for her safety hover nigh,
Thrid through the ringlets of her hair,
Pleased to find their favoured fair
Knows nought of fear nor coy disdain,
But has a heart for others' pain.

I hear, I hear their murmuring noise
Assure me of our future joys.
List, list, my girl! the listening breeze
Wafts thy words o'er waving trees;
How sweet they steal upon my ear,
Like promises of bliss sincere!

Thus 'tis that Hope's delusive gleams
Will cheat Youth's gay romantic dreams;

Yet when we claim her proffered aid
To win the long-sought promised maid,
Alas! we find she but beguiles,
Like woman's faithless, fleeting wiles!

SEDLEY.

Baltimore, April, 1806.

TO CHARLOTTE.

You have got, then, Moore's verses to Fanny,
Some one of his ten thousand loves;
Dear Charlotte, if you must read any,
Read verses that virtue approves.

A chaste maiden that bard's praise refuses,
How sweetly soever he sing,
Who profanely asks aid of the muses
To make her a vile wretched thing.

And she who has priz'd ev'ry sentence
Of the wit that her virtue assail'd,
Has oft, with vain, bitter repentance
Her credulous weakness bewail'd.

Poor Misella, deserted, may show it,
In rags stretch'd all night by the door
Of her gallant seducer, a poet,
Who counts her and her sorrows "*a bore.*"

Isabel, now the prey of dejection,
For vain praises exchanging true joys,
Cast off a fond husband's affection,
And her three prattling, rosy-cheek'd boys.

Giddy Bess, the disgrace of her kindred,
Began, weakly, by list'ning to rhyme,
And would by no counsel be hinder'd
From "*making the most of her prime.*"

Believe me, the bard who supposes
He can praise, without giving offence,
Your eye-brows, your lips, and your noses,
Gives your sex little credit for sense.

He means, in plain English,—"*My dear,*
I hope and presume you're a fool:

And provided I tickle your ear,
Expect I can make you my tool."

But little, dear Charlotte, I care,
Though Fashion's sons count me a boor;
But, in friendship, I bid you beware
Of such bards as "Anacreon Moore."

A sage of old said, in a passion,
But I have not the volume at hand,
"*When the pandars of vice are in fashion,*
Destruction hangs over the land."

J. L.

*** Good poetry is the most scarce of all literary commodities, though poetry, or matter that, by courtesy, bears the name, is sufficiently abundant. There has not lately been published in America any poetical *volume* of much value. We are therefore obliged to have recourse to the daily, weekly, and monthly periodical works for materials. The above pieces have most of them been carefully selected from these, and will probably be allowed to possess merit, at least, above mediocrity.

AMERICAN

REGISTER OF DEATHS.

AMERICAN

REGISTER OF DEATHS.

October 1, 1806.

SOCIETY was this day deprived of one of its brightest ornaments, and her friends of an invaluable blessing, by the sudden death of Mrs. Anna Randolph Craik, the truly amiable consort of the honourable William Craik, late one of the members for the state of Virginia in the house of representatives of the United States. She was the daughter of William Fitzhugh, Esq., of Alexandria. This lady had accompanied her husband to Bath for the benefit of his health. Soon after their arrival there, she was attacked by symptoms of nervous fever, which induced them to endeavour to return, but by the time they had reached Martinsburg, the disease had progressed in so rapid and alarming a manner, that they could proceed no further; and there, in the course of a few days, in defiance of every possible exertion of medical skill, the irresistible mandate of death summoned her to give an account of her stewardship, in the 24th year of her age.

Inshrined in as delicate and beautiful a form as ever graced the female character, she possessed a mind enriched by general information, and polished by every polite accomplishment; together with a disposition mild, animated, and affectionate, and a heart glowing with the purest and most active impulses of benevolence.

This singular assemblage of virtues and of excellences was dignified and refined by a confirmed attachment to the christian religion, and the most exemplary observance of all the rites and ceremonies of the protestant episcopal church, of which she was a member.

Her deportment in domestic life was such as excited the admiration and affection of all who enjoyed the privilege of her acquaintance.

At Newburyport, the noted Timothy Dexter, in the 60th year of his age; self-styled "lord Dexter, first in the east." He lived, perhaps, one of the most eccentric men of his time. His singularities and peculiar notions were universally proverbial. Born and bred to a low condition in life, and his intellectual endowments not being of the most exalted stamp, it is no wonder that a splendid fortune, which he acquired (though perhaps honestly) by dint of speculation and good fortune, should have rendered him, in many respects, truly ridiculous. The qualities of his mind were.

of that indefinite cast, which forms an exception to every other character recorded in history, or known in the present age, and "none but himself could be his parallel." But among the motley groupe of his qualities, it would be injustice to say he possessed no *good* ones: he certainly did. No one will impeach his honesty, and his numerous acts of liberality, both public and private, are in the recollection of all, and one of the items in his last will will always be gratefully remembered. His ruling passion appeared to be *popularity;* and one would suppose he rather chose to render his name "infamously famous than not famous at all."—His writings stand as a monument of the truth of this remark; for those who have read his "*Pickle for the Knowing Ones,*" a jumble of letters promiscuously thrown together, find it difficult to determine whether most to laugh at the consummate folly, or despise the vulgarity and profanity of the writer. His manner of life was equally extravagant and singular. A few years since he erected in front of his house a great number of images of distinguished persons in Europe and America, together with beasts, &c.; so that his seat exhibted more the appearance of a museum of artificial curiosities, than the dwelling of a family. By his orders, a tomb was several years since dug, under the summer-house in his garden, where he desired his remains might be deposited (but this singular request could not consistently be complied with), and his coffin made and kept in the hall of his house, in which he is to be buried. The fortunate and singular manner of his speculations, by which he became possessed of a handsome property, are well known; and his sending a cargo of warming-pans to the West Indies, where they were converted into molasses-ladles, and sold to good profit, is but one of the most peculiar. His principles of religion (if they could be called principles) were equally odd; a blind philosophy, peculiar to himself, led him to believe in the system of transmigration at some times; at others he expressed those closely connected with deism; but it is not a matter of surprise that one so totally illiterate should have no settled or rational principles. His reason left him two days before his death.

At Hubbardston, Massachusetts, Mr. Edward Selfridge, aged 71. Through the course of a long and laborious life, he sustained an exemplary character, and was universally esteemed as a man of unsullied integrity and unshaken independence. He early engaged in the military service of his country, and was an officer in the army commanded by general Wolfe. Attached to military life, it was his intention to have followed his fortunes in the service; but when the army was recalled from Canada, a fever compelled him to stay behind. By a course of honest and persevering industry, he, not long after, enabled himself to purchase a tract of wild land in Hubbardston, (county of Worcester) and was one of the earliest settlers in that town. Possessing a mind vigorous and inquisitive in the pursuit of useful knowledge, but limited in its researches by the narrowness of early instruction, it was his ambition and the leading object of his labours to bestow on his children an education which would qualify them for useful and honourable stations in society. He had two sons and three daughters; all of whom reaped the fruits of his industry, in a degree of liberal endowment, rarely attained by people in his rank in life. Both his sons were educated at college. The youngest, a lad of superior genius and uncommon promise, after having completed his collegiate studies, and excited the fondest hopes of his parents, died, about three months since, a victim to the intenseness of mental application. The eldest, whose flattering prospects in life, from the respectability of his professional character, had soothed the affliction of an aged and affectionate parent, he soon afterwards saw arrested in his progress by an overwhelming calamity, which doomed him to imprisonment, and thus deprived him of this last prop and comfort of his declining years. He had witnessed, too, the unrelenting fury with which this child of his affections was pursued by revengeful and implacable enemies. By the reality of this dreadful disaster, and by fearful apprehensions of the issue, his faul-

tering spirits were broken. By the distress and anxiety of his mind, resulting from an ardent paternal affection, a long latent bodily infirmity was excited into action, and he fell a victim to the disease of disappointed hope, and the pangs of accumulated and insufferable sorrow.

October 9th, at Washington, Penn., John Israel. The united skill and application of three physicians attending him proved abortive and ineffectual; the rapid progress of the inflammation and mortification baffled them, and at half past ten o'clock on Tuesday night, he was removed to that bourn from whence no traveller returns. Every thing that medical skill could devise was applied; but all was inefficient: he departed this life in his full and perfect senses, and resigned to his fate, amidst a large number of his surrounding friends, who at the solemn scene testified their affectionate regard for him. His goodness of heart, his sensibility, his charity and benevolence, shone conspicuously in him, whilst his domestic virtues endeared him to his family, his relatives and connections: he was a flower which budded early, and soon came to maturity, but, alas! has too soon withered and died away. His usefulness in society has been felt and acknowledged, and an extension thereof might have been expected and was calculated on by his friends and acquaintances. He was interred with the honours of masonry, in due form, attended by as large a procession of citizens as has appeared on such an occasion in that place.

October 17th, of a lingering illness, in the thirty-second year of her age, Mrs. Maria Smith, wife of Mr. Isaac Smith, and daughter of the late judge Francis Hopkinson, of Philadelphia.

Cut off in the bloom and amidst the usefulness of life, society, in the death of this amiable woman, is deprived of a distinguished ornament. Her virtues, which were the pride of an affectionate husband, rendered her dear to a respectable circle of relatives and friends, and reflected honour on her sex. Of lively and interesting manners, of a strong and clear understanding, improved by education, and refined by that wit which in her respected father shone resplendently, and which in the daughter was so guided by good sense, and tempered by good nature, that her conversation never created uneasiness, but largely contributed to the delight of her friends.

October 21st, at Philadelphia, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, Israel Whelen, Esq., formerly a representative of that city and district in the senate of Pennsylvania.

Few men have experienced greater vicissitudes of fortune than Mr. Whelen, or supported them with equal moderation and firmness.

As a senator, conciliating, active, and intelligent, even his political opponents were unable to withhold from him the tribute of their esteem and affection.

In private life, his exalted integrity secured to him, under the most trying exigencies, the unlimited confidence of his numerous friends.

In his domestic relations, every endearing quality united to render his loss irreparable. Such a man will be long remembered and deeply lamented: whilst we regret his loss, let us endeavour to imitate his virtues.

At Warren, Massachusetts, October 25th, 1806, general Knox. He was confined about six days. It is supposed that the cause of his death was his swallowing a sharp chicken bone, which perforated his bowels, and produced a mortification. The event was very sudden, and unexpected by his physicians, till a very short time before his death. The funeral took place next day, when every testimony of respect was paid by all classes of people.

To recount the public services, and to do full justice to the worth of this distinguished soldier and citizen, must devolve on the faithful historian, who, among the causes that influenced the success of our revolution, will often advert to the bravery, skill, and discipline of that distinguished corps, the artillery of the American army, which was organized and commanded throughout the war by this excellent officer.

Possessing in an eminent degree the esteem and confidence of the commander in chief, he was, in every stage of the contest, the faithful

friend and gallant associate of the illustrious Washington.

On the successful termination of his military career, when general Lincoln resigned, he was appointed secretary at war, under the confederation; and, his commission being renewed by president Washington, he continued for a long series of years most ably to administer the duties of that important department. Resigning his office, he returned to private life, on his estate in the district of Maine, in the year 1795, from which he has since been frequently called to share in the honours and labours of legislation in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, where the remembrance of his private and public virtues will be long cherished, and held in grateful estimation.

November 15th, at Georgetown, after a short illness, Robert Peter, Esq., in the 81st year of his age.

Assiduous and economical in early life, he had the felicity to see his exertions crowned with success in accumulating an independent fortune; and his numerous family have the happiness to experience the value of his unwearied endeavours, in receiving each a most ample patrimony out of his large possessions.

Mr. Peter was the first mayor of Georgetown, and filled that office with much credit to himself and satisfaction to his fellow-citizens. This honourable station was conferred on him by the legislature of the state of Maryland.

October 30, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, Mr. Israel Morris, junr., late of Philadelphia, merchant; the last few years of his life were passed generally in the state of New Jersey, where he applied his time and attention, in a manner congenial with his wishes, in useful and successful agricultural pursuits; these he had relinquished in earlier life, to partake of the arduous duties of the revolutionary war, of which he was an early and able supporter.

After its successful termination, he was many years the active, intelligent merchant, and useful citizen. Through these varied relations, as a member of the community, few men have passed with a more unanimous assent, of those who were the witnesses of his progress, that in them all, he had "done justly, loved mercy, and walked humbly."

September 28, at the family residence on the banks of Schuylkill, near Philadelphia, after a lingering illness, which she sustained with exemplary fortitude and resignation, Mrs. Anna Muhlenberg, the amiable and much respected consort of general Peter Muhlenberg, collector of the port of Philadelphia.

November 1st, at Philadelphia, in the 47th year of his age, Philip Nicklin, Esq., of the house of Nicklin and Griffith, merchants, of that city.

In deploring the exit of men of worth and usefulness, the mind reposes with melancholy pleasure in the recollection of the many virtues which adorned their lives and added value to their existence. The tears and regrets of the community will follow the remains of Mr. Nicklin to the grave. As a merchant, during the extensive transactions of upwards of twenty years, his reputation for integrity, punctuality, and intelligence, has never been impeached. In the various relations of society, he was amiable and accomplished. As a *friend*, his affections were unlimited; as a *companion*, he was always interesting. That he shone equally in the more endearing offices of *father* and *husband*, is testified by the present deep and unspeakable anguish of those beloved beings who but lately hovered over his person, and listened to his accents with instruction and delight.

As a member of numerous honorary and useful institutions, Mr. Nicklin has invariably attracted and perpetuated the esteem and confidence of his colleagues. In his death, we may truly exclaim, society has lost an ornament, and his family and friends a blessing.

November 15th, at Philadelphia, Miss Ann Redman, daughter of Dr. John Redman, of that city. This amiable lady was qualified by nature and education to attract public esteem and admiration, but filial piety, predominating over all other considerations, induced her to devote her talents and virtues chiefly to solace the declining years of her aged and venerable parents, to whom her death is rendered supportable only by that religion

which teaches that *all things shall work together* for the lasting benefit of those who have placed their prospects of happiness beyond the grave.

November 23d, at Germantown, Pennsylvania, in the 27th year of his age, Mr. George S. Bensell, a member elect, from the county of Philadelphia, to the house of representatives of the state of Pennsylvania.

November 25th, at Philadelphia, Robert Milligan, Esq., of Bohemia, in the state of Maryland, aged fifty-two years.

Of this gentleman it may be truly said, that having an early foundation in the most liberal education, ever after improving by a course of useful studies, he was equally fitted for private and public life. His manners were polished, his conversation agreeable, and distinguished by a peculiar poignancy and animation, his knowledge extensive, and his sentiments always just and noble.

With these qualifications Mr. Milligan at one time was called to the councils of the state, his natural station, and which he might have maintained if his love of power and distinction had been equal to his worth, understanding, and talents.

On Saturday, the 17th of January, 1807, at Philadelphia, after a lingering illness, which she bore with great resignation, Mrs. Cornelia Patton, wife of Robert Patton, Esq., post-master of that city, aged 34 years.

In the various relations of life, social and domestic, the deportment of the deceased was marked with extraordinary benignity of mind. During the tedious temporal affliction with which it pleased heaven to visit her, this ray of celestial excellence cheered and brightened her approaches to dissolution.

To a young and numerous family of children, and to her affectionate husband, the death of this amiable woman is an irreparable loss. An extensive circle of admiring friends will long have to deplore the breach that has thus been made in their society. But they will still have the consoling reflection, that a life of innocence is sure, in another world, to receive a "*crown of glory.*"

In Montgomery county, Penn., on the 10th of January, Mr. Jacob Deavy, aged 45 years. In the prime of manhood, and in the midst of usefulness, a short and severe indisposition consigned this truly worthy and respectable man to the grave.

On the evening of the 1st January, at Philadelphia, Miss Hannah Haworth, daughter of the late Mr. John Haworth, aged about thirty years. The uncommon sufferings of this amiable woman interested a large circle of friends and acquaintances; she had been the victim of disease from her twelfth year, and though an accomplished mind and great sprightliness of disposition would have fitted her for the enjoyment of society, yet she was never heard to murmur nor complain at the deprivation, but with patient resignation looked forward to a more perfect state of existence, after experiencing, perhaps, as much pain as the human frame is capable of supporting. An atrophy gradually released her pure spirit from suffering mortality to immortal joy.

January 30th, at Greensburg, Penn., Mrs. Rachel Pollock, wife of Thomas Pollock, Esq., one of the commissioners of that county. Mrs. Pollock died in child-bed, and has left a tender infant, a number of small children, and an affectionate husband to lament her loss.

On the same day, the dead body of Mr. David Pollock was found a rod or two off the old Pennsylvania road, between Stoy's town and Statler's tavern, wounded and mangled in a most shocking manner. Some packers from Westmoreland county, travelling down the road, and near the place, heard the report of two guns. Coming to the spot, they found a hat, a whip, and a horse. They also saw tracks into the woods which they traced for two or three rods, but could see nothing more. They then went on towards Statler's, and soon met a footman, to whom they showed what they had found, and told the story. The footman knew the horse, and said he had travelled in company with the owner the day before. The packers then took the horse, &c., on to Statler's. Mr. Statler immediately

sent an express on to Stoy's town; and, in the mean time, some horsemen coming up the road, examined the place, and found the dead body within a rod or two of the road. While the packers were conversing with the footmen, they saw two armed men on the road, near to the fatal spot, who immediately took to the woods. The neighbours then collected and pursued them; and, about twelve o'clock at night, found them in a house about six miles from Somerset. The woman of the house came out and told the party there were two men in the house. The men heard the noise, and prepared for their escape. Two of the party, Marks Koontz and Jacob Lambert, went in. One of the villains then attempted to make his escape out of the door, and, on his way, fired at one of the party. The bullet passed through his clothes. The man was then fired upon by a number, and instantly killed. His body is now in town, and the other is committed to prison. An inquest have found them guilty of murdering David Pollock. An inquisition will also be held on the dead body here. The name of the prisoner, as we have learned from some papers found with him, is Noel Huguel, that of the other, John Duplie Arnaud, both Frenchmen.

The body of Mr. Pollock is said to have been stabbed in ten or fifteen different places. He had been shot through the neck, and his throat was cut in such a mannner as nearly to sever his head from the body. A part of the dirk with which he had been stabbed was found in the body. The other part of the dirk, Mr. Pollock's watch, and seventy dollars in money, were found in the possession of the prisoners.

Mr. Pollock, the deceased, was a young man, about 22 or 23 years of age, of reputable connections, of decent and upright deportment, and bid fair to be a useful member of society. On Sunday, his remains and those of his departed sister-in-law, were both consigned to "the house appointed for all living."

Every person of feeling must be impressed with horror at the recital of such atrocious depravity; and we have learned from Somerset, that such is the sensibility excited there against the prisoner, that fears are entertained lest he may become a sacrifice to popular indignation.

January 30th, at Philadelphia, after a short but painful illness, Miss Eliza Glentworth. Thus, in the morning of youth, and the bloom of beauty, possessing the esteem and love of all her acquaintances and relatives, was this engaging young lady snatched from the circle of their society by the hand of death. May her friends find consolation in the hope, which the remembrance of her endearing deportment must confirm, that she has exchanged this feverish state of being for a brighter world.

January 28th, at New York, of a lingering illness, Mr. James Gould Murgatroyd, aged 18 years and 10 months.

In Grenville district, South Carolina, Mrs. Elkin, consort of Mr. Alfred E. Elkin; shot through the heart by her husband: he had seated himself near the door, with his gun across his lap, picking the flint; and observing Mrs. Elkin passed in the direction of the muzzle of the gun, shifted its position; soon after which, she again happened to pass in the direction of the muzzle, when the gun went off, and shot her dead. They were newly married.

THE COLUMBIAD*.

THE COLUMBIAD, a poem, in ten books, by Joel Barlow, is soon to be published in Philadelphia.

This title announces a work of the highest interest in a literary view that the present age has produced, especially as it regards our country, to which the subject is national. And, from a hasty perusal of a proof-sheet copy, we do not hesitate to pronounce the poem to be every way worthy of the subject. Greater praise than this could not well be expressed in a single phrase; as no subject within the compass of human actions can be more important or more affecting to a mind susceptible of great deas.

The discovery and settlement of a new world; the wars, revolutions, arts, industry, commerce, with the vast extensions of science and the means of happiness, which arise from unfolding the two hemispheres of our earth to the view of each other, must lead a lively imagination through a train of thought unequalled by any of the great events that had ever before employed the epic muse.

The nature of this work does not allow of an elaborate analysis of a work of this nature; otherwise we should be tempted to detail the general plan of the poem, and dwell with some minuteness on its principal component parts, that the reader might be enabled to form some notion of what may be expected from the work itself, when it shall make its appearance. We shall content ourselves, therefore, with a few extracts from different parts of the poem, just to show the style and manner of the author.

After the exposition of his subject, and a short address to Liberty, he opens the poem with a view of the situation of Columbus in a Spanish prison.

I sing the mariner who first unfurl'd
An eastern banner o'er the western world,
And taught mankind where future empires lay
In these fair confines of descending day;
Who sway'd a moment, with vicarious power,
Iberia's sceptre on the new found shore,
Then saw the paths his virtuous steps had trod
Pursued by avarice and defiled with blood,
The tribes he foster'd with paternal toil
Snatch'd from his hand, and slaughter'd for their spoil.
Slaves, kings, adventurers, envious of his name,
Enjoy'd his labours and purloin'd his fame,
And gave the viceroy, from his high seat hurl'd,

* We have been favoured with the following by a friend, and, though this work does not undertake to give an account of unpublished works, the importance of the performance here mentioned will, perhaps, justify us in inserting this brief notice.

Chains for a crown, a prison for a world.
Long overwhelm'd in woes, and sickening there,
He met the slow still march of black despair,
Sought the last refuge from his hopeless doom,
And wish'd from thankless men a peaceful tomb:
Till vision'd ages, opening on his eyes,
Cheer'd his sad soul, and bade new nations rise;
He saw the Atlantic heaven with light o'ercast,
And Freedom crown his glorious work at last.
Almighty Freedom! give my venturous song
The force, the charm that to thy voice belong;
Tis thine to shape my course, to light my way,
To nerve my country with the patriot lay,
To teach all men where all their interest lies,
How rulers may be just and nations wise:
Strong in thy strength I bend no suppliant knee,
Invoke no miracle, no muse but thee.
Night held on old Castile her silent reign,
Her half orb'd moon declining to the main;
O'er Valladolid's regal turrets hazed
The drizzly fogs from dull Pisuerga raised;
Whose hovering sheets, along the welkin driven,
Thinn'd the pale stars, and shut the eye from heaven.
Cold-hearted Ferdinand his pillow prest,
Nor dream'd of those his mandates robb'd of rest,
Of him who gemm'd his crown, who stretch'd his reign
To realms that weigh'd the tenfold poise of Spain;
Who now beneath his tower indungeon'd lies,
Sweats the chill sod, and breathes inclement skies.
His feverish pulse, slow labouring through his frame,
Feeds with scant force its fast expiring flame;
A far dim watch-lamp's thrice reflected beam
Throws through his grates a mist-encumber'd gleam,
Paints the dun vapours that the cell invade,
And fills with spectred forms the midnight shade;
When from a visionary short repose,
That nursed new cares and temper'd keener woes,
Columbus woke, and to the walls addrest
The deep felt sorrows bursting from his breast.

After an affecting monologue of the hero on his wretched situation, Hesper, the guardian genius of the western continent, appears to him in prison. This personage is introduced with a pomp and dignity suitable to the occasion. The prison walls vanish at his entrance; he leads Columbus to the mount of vision, and there shows him, in a vast variety of views, the countries composing the hemisphere to which he had led the way, and the consequences resulting to mankind from his discoveries. This leads to such a field of contemplation, and brings under the eye so many ages and nations, with their revolutions, devastations, reparations, and improvements, that it may be said to place before the hero the whole human race, past, present, and to come.

In the fourth book is a concise view of the religious persecutions which infested the states of Europe in the sixteenth century, and seemed to prepare the way for the settlement of North America. The fiend *Inquisition* in this picture forms the subject of one of the engravings with which the poem is ornamented.

Now roll the years, when Europe's ample space
By peace and culture rears a wiser race,
Men bred to labour, school'd in freedom's lore,
And form'd to colonize our favourite shore.

To speed their course the sons of bigot rage
In persecution whelm the inquiring age;
Myriads of martyr'd heroes mount the pyre,
And blind devotion lights the sacred fire.
Led by the dark Dominicans of Spain,
A new born fury walks the wide domain,
Gaunt INQUISITION; mark her giant stride,
Her blood-nurs'd vulture screaming at her side.
Her priestly train the tools of torment brings,
Racks, wheels, and crosses, faggots, stakes, and strings;
Scaffolds and cages round her altar stand,
And, tipt with sulphur, waves her flaming brand.
Her imps of inquest round the fiend advance.
Suspectors grave, and spies with eye askance,
Pretended heretics who worm the the soul,
And sly confessors with their secret scroll,
Accusers hired, for each conviction paid,
Judges retain'd, and witnesses by trade.
Dragg'd from a thousand jails her victim trains,
Jews, Moors, and Christians clank alike their chains,
Read their known sentence in her fiery eyes,
And breathe to heaven their unavailing cries;
Lash'd on the pile their writhing bodies turn,
And, veil'd in doubling smoke, begin to burn.
Where the flames open, lo! their limbs in vain
Reach out for help, distorted by the pain;
Till folded in the fires they disappear,
And not a sound invades the startled ear.
See Philip, throned in insolence and pride,
Enjoy their wailings, and their pangs deride;
While o'er the same dread scenes, on Albion's isles,
His well taught spouse, the cruel Mary smiles.
What clouds of smoke hang heavy round the shore!
What altars hecatomb'd with Christian gore!
Her sire's best friends, the wise, the brave, the good,
Roll in the flames or fly the land of blood.
To Gallia's plains the maddening frenzy turns,
Religions raves, and civil discord burns;
Leaguers and huguenots their vengeance pour,
They swell Bartholemy's wide feast of gore,
Alternate victors bid their gibbets rise,
And the foul stench of victims chokes the skies.

In the fifth book is brought on the revolutionary war of the United States. The demon *War*, leading on the invasion from Britain, is thus described:

Columbus turn'd; when, rolling to the shore,
Swells o'er the seas an undulating roar;
Slow, dark, portentous, as the meteors sweep,
And curtain black the illimitable deep,
High stalks, from surge to surge, a demon form,
That howls through heaven, and breathes a billowing storm.
His head is hung with clouds; his giant hand
Flings a blue flame far flickering to the land;
His blood-stain'd limbs drip carnage as he strides,
And taint with gory glume the staggering tides;
Like two red suns his quivering eyeballs glare,
His mouth disgorges all the stores of war,
Pikes, muskets, mortars, guns, and globes of fire,
And lighted bombs that fusing trails expire.
Perch'd on his helmet, two twin sisters rode,
The favourite offspring of the murderous god,

Famine and Pestilence; whom whilom bore
His wife, grim Discord, on Trinacria's shore;
When first their Cyclop sons from Etna's forge,
Fill'd his foul magazine, his gaping gorge:
Then earth convulsive groan'd, high shriek'd the air,
And hell in gratulation call'd him War.
Behind the fiend, swift hovering for the coast,
Hangs o'er the wave Britannia's sail-wing'd host;
The crowd the main, they spread their sheets abroad,
From the wide Laurence to the Georgian flood,
Point their black batteries to the peopled shore,
And spouting flames commence the hideous roar.

The scenes of this war, with all the variety of havoc it occasioned, are described in three books; they terminate at the end of the seventh. Naval battles, as the author observes in his preface, are new in modern poetry. He might have added, that the modern modes of fighting, both by land and sea, are not yet familiar in modern poetry. The naval battle in his seventh book is forcibly depicted. The blowing up of two ships of the line presents a set of images uncommonly striking. The length of the scene, and its connection with other objects, will not permit an extract.

The eighth book opens with a hymn to Peace, at once solemn and exhilarating, after the distressing devastations of war.

Hail, holy Peace, from thy sublime abode
'Mid circling saints that grace the throne of God.
Before his arm, around our embryon earth,
Stretch'd the dim void, and gave to nature birth,
Ere morning stars his glowing chambers hung,
Or songs of gladness woke an angel's tongue,
Veil'd in the splendours of his beamful mind,
In blest repose thy placid form reclin'd,
Lived in his life, his inward sapience caught,
And traced and toned his universe of thought.
Borne through the expanse with his creating voice
Thy presence bade the unfolding worlds rejoice,
Led forth the systems on their bright career,
Shaped all their curves, and fashion'd every sphere,
Spaced out their suns, and round each radiant goal,
Orb over orb, compell'd their train to roll,
Bade heaven's own harmony their force combine,
Taught all their host symphonious strains to join,
Gave to seraphic harps their sounding lays,
Their joys to angels, and to men their praise.
From scenes of blood, these verdant shores that stain,
From numerous friends in recent battle slain,
From blazing towns that scorch the purple sky,
From houseless hordes their smoking walls that fly,
From the black prison ships, those groaning graves,
From warring fleets that vex the gory waves,
From a storm'd world, long taught thy flight to mourn,
I rise, delightful Peace, and greet thy glad return.

The three last books of the poem expatiate over the widest field that human affairs can spread before the mind. The poet has attempted to unfold, in an ample manner, the past and the future of man upon earth, with the moral causes of his frequent relapses from truth and reason. The mind is then taught to dwell with pleasure on the immense improvements that must follow from the removal of those causes.